

THE LITERARY GAZETTE

AND

Journal of the Belles Lettres, Science, and Art.

No. 1964.

LONDON, SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 9, 1854.

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BRITISH ASSOCIATION for the ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE.—The Next Meeting will be held at Liverpool, commencing on Sept. 29, 1854, under the Presidency of the EARL of HALLOWBY, F.R.S.

The Reception Room will be in St. George's Hall, Liverpool. Notices of Communications intended to be read to the Association, accompanied by a statement whether the Author will be present at the Meeting, may be addressed to John Phillips, M.A., F.R.S., or to Dr. Dickson, F.R.S., and Dr. Inman, Local Secretaries, Liverpool.

JOHN TAYLOR, F.R.S., General Secretary,
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LONDON, SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 9, 1854.

REVIEWS.

History of the Reigns of Louis XVIII. and Charles X. By Eyre Evans Crowe, Author of 'The History of France,' &c. Bentley.

ALTHOUGH many volumes have been published on the history of France under the Restoration, there was still wanted for English readers a concise and consecutive narrative, such as that which Mr. Crowe has in this work presented. From the writings of Lubis and Lamartine on the part of the Royalists, Vauveller on the Liberal side, and Bignon on that of the Imperialists; from the *mémoires* of Capéfigue and Guizot; and, above all, from the parliamentary records in the French *Annuaire*, the materials of the history are drawn. The author justly observes, that although much may yet be written respecting the epoch of the Restoration, there are few secrets now that remain to be revealed, and no mysteries that require solving. "The struggles and events of French politics during that period," he adds, "took place more in the forum than in the closet; and there remains little that garrulity has not already revealed, or that the proverbial curiosity of the nation has not penetrated and exposed." Mr. Crowe commences his history with two introductory chapters, the one on the causes which led to military ascendancy after the Republican revolution, and the other on Imperialism, its rise and fall. The story of the recall of the Bourbons in 1814 is then taken up, and again in 1815, after the exciting episode of the return from Elba, and the events of the hundred days. From the chapter in which the return of Napoleon is described, we quote some paragraphs in which the author displays more than ordinary spirit in his narrative:—

"The trying moment was the first encounter of the Emperor and his little troop with the soldiers posted to resist his passage. He was aware that a considerable number of troops had been mustered in Grenoble, and in the departments bordering on Italy. The advance of Murat from Naples had alarmed the Bourbon Government, and Prince Talleyrand had demanded the formation of an army in the south, not only to oppose him, but to display to Congress that Louis XVIII. could muster and command a military force. Napoleon hoped to reach some portion of this army before any especial orders or Royalist commanders could arrive from Paris. He marched twenty leagues, he traversed Grasse and Digne, and was fortunately able to pass the Durance, under the fortress of Sisteron, without obstacle. Some Royalists proposed to break down the bridge which passed under the fortress, but the populace would not permit them. It was not till the 7th of March, that is, after a march of 150 miles, which took nearly a week to accomplish, that Napoleon found his passage opposed by a body of Royalist troops. They were about 1000 men, and were posted at Vizille, behind the Isère, only a few leagues from Grenoble. An officer sent on from the Imperialist troops was threatened with being fired at. It was then that Napoleon dismounted, and advanced alone, his grenadiers with reversed arms following at a distance, he himself clad in his gray surcoat, that did not conceal the white facings of the uniform which covered his breast. Silence was observed in the ranks as he approached them. Stopping when at about twenty paces, Napoleon took off his hat, saluted them, and said: 'Soldiers of the 5th Regiment, if there is one amongst you desirous to kill his old General, his Emperor, he may do so. I am here.' The appeal, once allowed to be made, was, of course, resistless, and was answered by a

loud shout of 'Vive l'Empereur!' With this shout the revolution was consummated. The soldiers in Grenoble had but one idea, one determination, that of joining the Emperor; and Labédoyère, when he led the regiment of which he was colonel, did but follow the stream.

"The Bourbons and their ministers in Paris were in the mean time slumbering in full security. Several of the old revolutionary party had lifted up their voices to give warning. Carnot published his opinion in a memorable pamphlet. Talleyrand before his departure for Vienna had entreated the King to gain Fouché, and employ him as head of the police. The odium of a regicide was at that time intolerable to Louis XVIII., who thought he had done enough in that direction by appointing Soult to the War Office. There Soult worked far more harm than good. He was always in extremes. He sought to banish all half-pay officers from Paris; but they imitated Excelsmans, remained, and defied him. On learning the resistance of Talleyrand in conjunction with Austria against Russia and Prussia, he proposed to strengthen French diplomacy by an army of 400,000 men. Barras at the same time sought an interview with the King, to whom he said he had important facts to disclose. M. De Blacas saw Barras, who said he would only tell his secret to the King, but warned him that danger was near. The King would not see Barras. The Duke and Duchess of Angoulême had set out for the south, in order to awaken the fervour of loyalty in the population. From Bordeaux the Duchess of Angoulême wrote word, that she found no difficulty with respect to citizens and civilians; but the army, which she encountered in that city, she denounced, soldiers and officers, as disaffected. A Royalist general officer, who inspected the garrison of Metz about the same time, was struck by its attitude. It was 'like a convent,' he said, 'with one soul, obedient to a superior influence.' The soldiers performed their military duties scrupulously, but refused to join in any amusement, so deep was their sense of humiliation, so ardent their thirst of revenge. It was the Old Guard that had been sent to form the garrison of Metz and to occupy Lorraine, whose aspect is thus described. There was no need of any especial conspiracy for Napoleon to present himself before such an army, and be received as its idol.

"The first tidings of the landing and march of Napoleon reached M. de Vitrolles (Minister of the Secretaryship of State) at one o'clock on the afternoon of the 5th. He rushed to inform the King, who did not at first see the gravity of the event. He ordered Soult to be informed of it, in order that the War Minister might take the due precaution. Soult perplexed, telegraphed to Lyons, that he would send orders for the morrow. The Count d'Artois was despatched to Lyons, with the Duke of Orleans, who in vain asked to be spared the mission. In the interview which the Duke had with the King on this occasion he confessed the views of some of the constitutional party to set him on the throne; and he recommended the King for this reason to allow him to remain in Paris. Macdonald was to accompany them. The Duke of Bourbon, or *Chou Chou*, as the Duchess of Angoulême called him, was bidden to take the command in La Vendée. The Duke of Berri was to proceed to Franche Comté; but when recollecting that Ney was governor of that province, Ney so obstreperous in his loyal zeal, it was thought better not to interfere with existing arrangements, but to leave him to deal with the military intruder. Ney hastened to kiss the royal hand upon this mark of confidence, and at the same moment exclaimed that 'Bonaparte should pay dearly for his audacity: I will bring him to your Majesty, bound hand and foot, in an iron cage.' 'Go,' said Louis, in reply to the Marshal; 'I count upon your devotion and fidelity.'

"Marshal Soult, in an order of the day, was not less violent in his denunciations of the usurper. 'What did he want?—Civil war. What seek?—Traitors. Bonaparte despises us enough to believe that we can quit a legitimate and beloved sovereign to share the fate of an adventurer.'

After some hours' interval, both Soult and Ney were in Napoleon's service and confidence. What must we think of such men? That they were serious in behalf of that cause which they for the moment thought triumphant. Ignorant alike of public principle, and not reared with that gentlemanly feeling, which makes attachment to a chief or a cause a point of honour, they consulted but their own interests and the prospects of the future, and had not the judgment to see these aright. They are melancholy proofs that heroism may exist, nay, may continue to command popular admiration, without almost the smallest particle of either virtue or intelligence."

Of the three Princes of the House of Bourbon, as they appeared in 1814, this sketch is given:—

"The Princes of the House of Bourbon were not endowed with the qualities fitted either to command sympathy or to awaken hope for their fortunes. Weaker men or paler characters than the three royal brothers, whom fate had placed to withstand, or be the victims of, the most violent of revolutions, it was difficult to imagine. Louis XVI. was a child in goodness, in helplessness, in irresolution,—saying little, thinking less. Shrinking from this and from every other act of manhood, he was a perfect specimen of that innate shadow in which centuries of absolute power, unbridled lust, and uncultivated intellect, in one privileged family, but too naturally terminate.

"The Count de Provence, or Monsieur, as the next brother to the monarch was emphatically called, was considered superior in capacity—and although, like a true descendant of Louis XIV., he avoided showing any symptom of that mutinous opposition, which the Duke of Orleans hazarded, he still kept aloof from the follies and extravagance of the Court, cultivating a taste for letters, and affecting, as far as was decorous and safe, the philosopher and the wit. Far too timid and too loyal to flatter the Parliament, join in its judicial malcontentism, or form connexion with the rising demagogues, Monsieur still showed himself liberal in the Committees of the Assembly of Notables, over which he presided. In these he went far enough to be considered by the Queen and the ultra-royalist partisans as no friend to the throne, yet he did not go far enough to win the confidence even of those who lent an impulse to the revolution in the hope that it would check its onward course, and settle down into some form of constitutional government.

"The constitutionalists at first preferred the Duke of Orleans, as possessed of boldness at least. The pure royalists placed their hopes in the King's younger brother, the Count d'Artois, a Prince possessed of those physical advantages which his elders wanted. He was tall, graceful, handsome, fond of the chase, and when at Court had gallant adventures, sufficient to make him a reputation. One of these, which ended tragically, had such an effect upon him, as to lead to his forswearing in future any such pursuit or such connexion. The piety and virtue of the Prince, originating in such a cause, shed a certain atmosphere of romance about him. Moreover, as he was equally resolute and enthusiastic in political opinions, and in his attachment to the obsolete monarchy, which was perishing before his eyes, as well as to the aristocratic cause, with which it was indissolubly linked, the Count d'Artois was considered the Prince Rupert of the French Revolution, one at least who would flush his sabre in offering resistance, nor yield till he had fought and bled. With such sentiments and such a reputation the Count d'Artois left Versailles with the first batch of emigrants."

The political portraits of the leading statesmen of the time of the Restoration are generally drawn with impartial accuracy, and the characteristic features of their policy justly delineated. Thus the author refers to M. Royer Collard, the founder of the celebrated Doctrinaire party in the reign of Louis XVIII.:—

"Of all the personages, who at that time took

part in politics, without being carried away by them, the most revered and sagacious was Royer Collard. He is with justice considered the founder of the Doctrinaire school, the first to take a position on intermediate ground, in religion between the disciples of Loyola and those of Voltaire, in Government between divine right and the sovereignty of the people. One of the wisest acts of Louis XVIII. was the appointment of Royer Collard to be President of the Council of Public Instruction, in which position he could hold the balance between the influence of the old philosophic and of the new religious party. But Royer Collard was also a deputy, and took active part in the great questions of the press, of individual liberty, and of the law of elections, in all which his opinions were marked by a profundity, and pronounced with a precision, which rendered his words oracular and his influence potential. The deputies of the Centre, and more especially of the Right Centre, rallied round him; and with such supports and disciples as Camille Jordan, the Duc de Broglie, Guizot, Beugnot, the school of Royer Collard promised for the moment to be as predominant in the Chamber as it was in the university. But the current of events went not to strengthen moderate opinions or parties in politics. The ministerial patronage which Decazes shed over the Doctrinaires, far from strengthening them, proved a serious cause of weakness, by compromising the young party, and rendering it responsible for the inevitable faults and weaknesses of even a well-intentioned administration. The main support of M. Decazes were the Government functionaries. They composed the greater part of the working majority, of which the Doctrinaires formed a small nucleus; and the Doctrinaires themselves accepted office, either in the university, the administration, or the Council of State. In vain did several of them protest at different times against the acts of the Ministry; in vain did they profess their independence; they became so enveloped and compromised by the policy of M. Decazes, that the same obloquy covered both. Royer Collard, therefore, determined to retire from office. As head of the Education Board, he was not always able to resist the demands of the clerical party, or to obtain that support of the Prime Minister against them which he desired. He foresaw the overthrow of the balanced system of administration; and deemed it wise to withdraw in time, not to be overwhelmed and identified with its fall. He selected for his resignation the moment of M. Decazes' abandonment of the electoral law; and when the three Ministers withdrew from the Cabinet on that ground, M. Royer Collard, without assigning any reason publicly, threw up the Presidency of the University Council, and deprived M. Decazes of his great moral support. Other members of the Doctrinaire party, less sagacious and circumspect, as well as less liberal, continued to lend their support to M. Decazes after the formation of his new Ministry, and not only approved of the project of altering the electoral law, but drew up a much larger scheme of change themselves. This was developed by M. de Staël in a volume; but how little chance such a scheme had of becoming popular in France, may be judged from the fact that every change was an assimilation to the English system, establishing county separate from town elections, abrogating the ballot, and having the entire of the Chamber at once elected for a long and settled period.

Mr. Crowe brings his history down to the abdication of Charles X. in favour of the Duke of Bordeaux, and the enthronement of the citizen-king, Louis-Philippe, by the will of the people, after the Revolution of 1830. We give the closing paragraphs of the work:—

"The Duke of Orleans had despatched Commissaries to Rambouillet at the same time that Charles X. despatched his abdication by General Foissac Latour. Charles X. would not receive the Commissaries; he awaited the result of his abdication and the proclamation of Henry V. General Foissac was unable to execute his commission until he had obtained the aid of M. de Mortemart. The

reply to it was, an order to six or seven thousand of the Parisian insurgents to march upon Rambouillet; and the Commissaries, being Marshal Maison, M. de Schonen, and Odillon Barrot, set forth, and were preceded or supported by the insurrectionary army under the command of General Pajol.

"It was a strange *pêle-mêle*, this revolutionary army, of men in uniform or *en blouse*, on horseback, on foot, in carts, setting forth to enforce that dethronement which had been already achieved at Paris. Some forty thousand of this straggling army reached the environs of Rambouillet. Repelled by the advanced posts, one of their chiefs, of the name of Poque, was shot in the heel. The King, when he heard of it, ordered him to be brought to the palace to have his wound dressed. Whilst their army was bivouacking in the forest, the four thousand men of the Guard still maintaining the park and protecting the chateau, the Commissaries returned; and this time, at the request of Marmont, Charles X. received them. He was at first unwilling to listen, until Marshal Maison declared that there were sixty thousand armed Parisians determined to advance to the attack of Rambouillet, and that the Commissaries came there to protect the King. Odillon Barrot disliked this mode of frightening the monarch, like a child, with exaggerated accounts of danger; but he asked his Majesty, for the sake of those who followed and surrounded him, to avoid a useless catastrophe. 'Your Majesty and your sons have abdicated.' Here the King said, 'Yes, but we reserved the right of the Duke of Bordeaux.' 'Whatever are his rights,' added M. Barrot, 'they are best consulted by avoiding the spilling more blood.' 'What can I do?' asked the King of Marmont. The latter advised him to abandon resistance. The Commissaries having withdrawn, to allow the King leisure for reflection, his Majesty sent for Marshal Maison, and addressed him, 'You are a soldier. On the word of one, I ask whether what you have just said is true? Are there sixty thousand Parisians threatening Compiègne?' Marshal Maison did not shrink from repeating that there were. The King ejaculated that he had better depart; and then he recurred to his grandson and to the conditions of his abdication. Maison, whom Charles X. had made a Marshal, observed that he could not listen to any political remarks in the absence of his colleagues; adding, that it was difficult to keep one's self free from suspicions, especially in persons situated as he was. The King looked at the Marshal, and told him he might withdraw. He then consulted Marmont, who discussed the chances of resistance. It was difficult, in such a position as Rambouillet, surrounded with forests, in which neither cavalry nor artillery could act. How far the troops could be depended on remained doubtful. Marmont recommended submission. Charles followed the advice, and withdrew immediately with the troops to Maintenon. There he dismissed his army, telling the Guard and the other regiments to make their submission to the Lieutenant-General. The *Gardes du Corps* and some *gens d'armes* were alone to escort him to Cherbourg, which Charles had chosen as the place of his embarkation and the commencement of his exile. Charles bade adieu to his Guards on the 4th of August. On the previous day, the 3rd, the Duke of Orleans went in full solemnity to the Chambers, and, taking advantage of the conditional abdication of Charles X. to present it as an unconditional one, informed the Legislature that the King and the Dauphin had both signed such an act, which would be deposited with the Chamber the moment it was constituted. Whilst Charles X. and his family continued their route to Cherbourg, the Chamber of Deputies, on the 7th, disdaining to take advantage of the conditional abdication, declared that, in consequence of the violation of the Charter and the events of the Three Days, the throne was vacant *de jure* and *de facto*, and that certain alterations being to be made in the Charter, and clauses added to it, the Duke of Orleans, on the promise of his accepting and swearing to the Charter thus amended, was voted and declared to be King, under the title of

King of the French. Of 252 deputies, but 33 voted in the negative.

"Charles X., each morning of his long journey to Cherbourg, received the 'Moniteur,' and read the successive accounts of the elevation or usurpation of his relative. He made no comment, displayed no bitterness, but, with his family, resigned himself to what he considered the decree of heaven. The aged monarch took an affecting farewell of his body-guard; and, with son and niece, daughter-in-law and grandson, set forth amidst the silent respect of the people of Cherbourg for that same Holyrood which had been his residence during his first emigration."

There are various portions of Mr. Crowe's work which will be received with hostile criticism by writers of conflicting political opinions in France. But we do not believe that any Frenchman would have displayed an equal amount of frankness and impartiality in treating of the same events. The general accuracy of the history will not be disputed. In this consists the principal merit of the work; and the confidence felt in Mr. Crowe's fidelity as a narrator of facts will reconcile the reader to the absence of originality of thought or brilliancy of style.

Scenery, Science, and Art. By Professor Ansted, &c. &c. &c. Van Voorst.

[Second Notice.]

SPAIN appears to have been the principal seat of Professor Ansted's travelling experience. He was largely impressed with "his grand physical geography, its almost sub-tropical vegetation, its peculiar mountain-ranges, its yet more striking river courses, and its singular people;" and he notes, "for the benefit of all doubting and comfort-loving travellers," that he was accompanied on one occasion by his wife. It was, however, during his first visit that he was struck by the lovely complexion and "lively, pleasant, conversable dark eyes" of Perpignan. Leaving that town on the French frontier one fine summer morning, the Professor made his way across the chain of the Pyrenees, and travelling to Martorel in a cumbrous twelve-horse diligence, he took the railway to Barcelona, which no longer allowed him to wander, with that delight which only naturalists can appreciate, among orange trees, and hedges of cactus and aloes with their lofty flower-stalks. The valleys of the Ebro and its tributaries, having a course of more than 400 miles, contributed many picturesque scenes, and the traveller pushed on through Tarragona and Valencia to Madrid. As an example of the Professor's art-criticisms in this city, we quote from his description of the famous pictures of Velasquez:—

"In speaking of the Valencia Museum, I have already given some account of Juanes and Ribalta, whose best pictures are in that collection. The finest Murillos are in like manner at Seville, the birthplace of the artist, but in Madrid we see to perfection the works of Velasquez. This great artist was born at Seville in 1599, studied and painted in Italy, but returned uninfluenced, so far as the smallest mannerism is concerned, from association with the bright constellation of talent that was then shedding its glory over that country. On his return to Spain he settled at Madrid, there to work out and embody his own manly ideas of art, trying every department and succeeding in all, but chiefly excelling in the delineation of *men*, in which he has been rarely approached, and never at any time or in any country excelled. Of this painter upwards of sixty pictures are in the Madrid Museum, and none are without some points of interest, few are in any sense second-rate, while

most of them exhibit the power and genius of the artist in a manner which cannot be mistaken.

"The portraits of the ruling members of the house of Austria, and of their wives, children, favourites and generals, a few other portraits, one or two battle-pieces, one or two landscapes, and some sacred subjects, make up almost the whole series of the works of this master presented to us. Each class possesses beauties and charms of its own, and each is altogether different from the others. In the portraits, the thing most remarkable is the perfect individuality and honesty of the painter. The likeness one cannot question, for the very face is in each case flesh and blood before us. No attempt at improving ugliness or heightening beauty is to be traced, but at the same time there is never any unnecessary or painful object introduced. The dignity of heart is upheld, without the truth of nature being in any case for a moment sacrificed. One portrait of Ferdinand of Austria, which has been engraved, and is not unknown in this country, affords a good instance of this peculiar character of the artist. The man and his dog stand out boldly from the canvass before us. Landseer never painted a dog more faithfully or more carefully—his eye is on his master, and he is ready at a moment. The prince is dressed very soberly, but the colouring is finished with admirable care; nothing, however, distracts the attention from the face, which is calm, natural, and pleasing. A considerable number of similarly treated subjects might be referred to. All are true and genuine. Without false glare, without any attempt to shine, they represent exactly what is required and no more, and this they do freely, firmly, and distinctly. It is said that no sketches of this artist are known to exist, and that he actually drew upon his canvass, and the appearance of the pictures fully justifies this. The colouring at first appears cold and grey, but it improves wonderfully on becoming accustomed to it; and all the details are so perfect, the aerial perspective and *chiaro oscuro* so faultless, that, like nature itself, the beauty of the image is not seen or appreciated till it has been looked at over and over again. Then by degrees the whole comes out and harmonizes, until the actual creation of the object is attained.

"Besides the royal family of Spain, there are numerous portraits by Velasquez of the dwarfs, who seem to have been kept about the court for the amusement of children of all ages. Such objects are difficult for an artist to do justice to, for in themselves they excite painful ideas, and these are too apt to become ludicrous when the smallest approach to caricature is permitted. Such an approach, however, is never seen in Velasquez. The dwarfs are dwarfs, and nothing else. They are true representations of natural objects, though unlike their kind, and thus they become really interesting in a natural-history sense.

"So also with children. The child-like character is manifest in all, but some of the children are bright and clever, some are dull and stupid, and this always in a perfectly true and natural way. There are one or two portraits of this kind perfectly marvellous in the effect they produce when examined carefully.

"The sacred subjects are not numerous, but there is one—a *Crucifixion*—which seemed to me the grandest and most sublime realization of the event that human intellect could conceive, or human hand represent. The darkness has covered the earth and the Christ is dead, but the expression of resignation and suffering still remaining in the drooping head can never be effaced from my memory.

"All the works of Velasquez are thinly painted, and little if at all varnished. They have been honestly and carefully finished, and the artist has evidently been more desirous to work up to his own standard of perfection, than to satisfy any fashion of the day. He is not gloomy in his treatment even of sacred subjects, and in this respect both he and Murillo are striking and noble exceptions to the prevalent austerity of the Spanish school, which was too apt to be governed by the dread of

the Inquisition. No one certainly can see and examine Velasquez's works without understanding the simple, unassuming, but unyielding character of the man himself, who stands now on a proud eminence rarely approached, and whose influence is felt and acknowledged by all great artists who have studied him in this place."

And his attention was attracted by a fine specimen of the great sloth-like *Megatherium*, a restoration of which may be seen on the geological island in the Crystal Palace Park:

"The collection of fossils, though not absolutely confined to one specimen, is so nearly limited to this, as to exclude the possibility of noticing a second. But the one is indeed a magnificent monster, being the celebrated *Megatherium*, the largest, and, at one time, the most perfectly preserved skeleton of an extinct animal known to exist. The bones, which are here set up in a somewhat imperfect manner, were discovered upwards of sixty years ago near Buenos Ayres, and were sent to Madrid, being explained and described afterwards by Cuvier, in his great work on Fossil Bones. The animal resembled a sloth in some of its habits, but was very much larger and more massive, though not taller than the largest known elephant. Since the closely-allied *Mylodon*, discovered near the same locality, was brought to England and set up, and described by Professor Owen, the exclusive interest attaching to the Madrid specimen is rather diminished, as no attempt has been made by the Spanish naturalists to improve the arrangement of the skeleton; but it will always remain one of the most magnificent examples of the inhabitants of the ancient world that have been handed down to us, scarcely altered by the thousands of years that have passed away since the creature was in existence in the woods of America, and employed the vast strength with which it was endowed in tearing up and pulling down the trees of the tropical forest, on whose leaves it seems to have lived."

The geological Professor could not resist the attractions, bloody and brutal, of a bull-fight; nor can we resist giving his own honest but horrible account of it, confessing as he does "to a feeling of excitement not unmingled with pleasure:"—

"I could not be at Madrid without being anxious to see a bull-fight, and thus judge for myself of the real nature and extent of the excitement produced by this last and singular remains of the amusements of a former time, when education and civilization had not softened the national character of the rest of Europe, and when bull-fights were well represented amongst our ancestors, by cock-fights, bear-baiting, dog-fights, and other similar exhibitions, at least equal in barbarity and barbarism to the peculiar glory of Spain—its *taurromachia*.

"It happened that on the very day of my first entrance to the capital, a solemnity of this kind was about to take place. I procured a ticket for a good place in the shade, and at the proper time (four P.M., when the intense heat of the sun was abating) proceeded to take my seat. The whole of the noble street leading to the principal gate, outside which is the amphitheatre, was crowded with people of all classes, anxiously bending their steps to the one great centre of attraction. Omnibuses, crowded inside and out, and drawn along at full gallop by six horses—carriages of all kinds, from the britschka of the nobleman to the shabbiest of shabby cabs—and foot-passengers innumerable, completely filled the broad pathway. All the lower classes were in full costume, some of them being mounted on horses, whose scarlet housings were really magnificent: and the general effect of this part of the population, with a large sprinkling of water-sellers, fan-dealers (for everybody, male as well as female, takes a fan to the battle-field), cigar-lighters, and numerous others, following in their wake, and screaming their occupations at the top of their voices, produced a scene

quite as exciting as any ordinary public amusement could be.

"The appearance within the amphitheatre was extremely fine. The building itself measures about 600 feet in diameter, and holds when crowded at least 8000 people. When I entered it was nearly full. Near the ground the mass of people were already seated, in all varieties of Spanish costume, both male and female, but the waving of fans almost obscured the details. Higher up, and in the boxes, the dresses were more gay and rich, but less picturesque. The central area, open to the day, was occupied by boys and stragglers, who, at a signal, were soon dispersed; and a procession, consisting of about twenty men-at-arms on horseback, and headed by two men in full Castilian costume, paraded round the course. These were followed by a number of others, in the gayest spangled dresses, in regular order, whose business it is to excite and tease the bull, by holding out cloaks of the brightest colours, and then running away, inducing the bull to follow. These are called *capeas*, and escape when pursued by jumping over a strong barricade into a recess, where it is very rarely that the bull can follow them. Then came five men on horseback, in full black dress; afterwards six *picadors*, each armed with a spear, and padded so as to be safe from ordinary accidents; then a number of led horses, harnessed in threes, whose business it is to carry off the dead animals; next, ten men in a blue dress; and last of all, a number of men leading bull-dogs, the last resource when a bull refuses to show fight, and is not thought worthy of being killed by the sword.

"All these at first merely pass in review and then leave, except two of the *picadors* and a number of the *capeas*, dressed in bright colours, with their cloaks on their arms; and the door is immediately opened for the bull to rush out.

"It may well be imagined that very great difference will exist in the mode in which these animals behave when thus admitted into an open space, perplexed by a multitude of enemies close at hand, surrounded by a vast concourse of people shouting at the utmost pitch of their voices, and with a military band playing martial airs close to them. To watch this first impression was both interesting and exciting. The first bull on the present occasion, bred near Madrid, was bold as well as fierce. He charged the *picador*, who met him bravely with the lance, but the horns of the animal tore open the horse's belly; and although he again and several times withstood a similar charge, the man was at last thrown and the poor horse killed. Meanwhile the *capeas* were not idle, but worried and teased their victim till he was nearly exhausted.

"A new set of tormentors, the *bandarillos*, then entered with darts covered with paper flounces, each dart having a sharp barbed point; and these were very cleverly stuck into the animal's neck, and infuriated him once more. The *espada*, or swordsman, at length appeared—his hair curiously knotted behind like that of a woman, and his whole appearance rather effeminate; standing in front of the bull, he dared him to the charge—exciting him with a scarlet cloth. While being rushed at, however, the *espada* steps adroitly aside, and plunges his long sword into the neck of the animal towards the heart. When the bull is dead, the horses that have been killed are first carried off by the team already described, and then the carcass of the bull is conveyed off in the same way at full gallop, the band playing a triumphant air in honour of the victory.

"Such, with certain exceptions, is the march of events in those cases in which the bull is staunch, and the men well-experienced. If, however, the bull is not sufficiently courageous, and will not charge the mounted *picador*, dogs (*los perros*) are loudly called for by the spectators, and are soon brought in, and allowed to worry the animal.

"The breed of bull-dogs used for this purpose did not seem to me particularly fine, but they soon succeeded in their object, although, in one case, not without some mischief being effected, and one poor dog killed.

"Of the eight bulls brought out on the occasion in which I was a spectator, only one was really powerful, fierce, and determined; and the combat in his case had much that was grand and even terrible. He was bred in Seville—a black and white animal, with large spreading horns and a noble head. He fought with every enemy that presented himself, never refusing to attack. He killed four horses and mortally wounded two others, being himself killed at length by two stabs, fighting to the last, and rushing at the espada, after he had received one sword-thrust to the hilt, with almost as much vigour as if the battle had only just commenced.

"One other, a black bull, also from Seville, showed much fight, and killed three horses, but was not so determined as the last. The rest were far inferior, one of them refusing even to attack the unarmed men, and being easily killed by three dogs."

At Granada, Professor Ansted visited the Alhambra, and since our readers have been made familiar with its wondrous style of decoration by the admirable reproduction of the Court of Lions at the Crystal Palace, we must find room for his description of it:—

"Leaving the town, and advancing up a steep narrow street, we soon reach the gate which forms the present entrance to the precincts of the Alhambra. Under the name of Alhambra is included a considerable space of ground, formerly strongly fortified and entirely enclosed, and still defensible. It includes part of the old Moorish fortress, the old summer palace of the Moorish kings, a detestable modern carcass built on the ground formerly occupied by the winter palace of the Moors, and extensive gardens, besides numerous houses and a church. Of these, the remaining towers of the old fortress, the summer palace, and the walks and walls, are the objects of interest, the palace being that which attracts chief attention, as being probably the most exquisite existing specimen of Moorish architecture in design and execution. There is, however, no external beauty, the walls being perfectly plain and without openings of any kind, except here and there a simple doorway. It is not till this door has closed upon one that the land of enchantment is reached, but it is then felt to be as much beyond imagination as it is difficult of description. You first enter a small cloistered court, in the middle of which is a piece of water surrounded with a small garden. Around are Moorish columns, and above a double cloister there is a passage closed with lattice-work, the retreat of the ladies when processions were passing, or other unusual events taking place in the court below, and the other a story higher, quite open. Both these and all the arches and windows are richly decorated with the most elaborate tracery. At one end of this oblong cloister is a part much more rich than the rest, opening first into an ante-room and then into a glorious hall, 150 feet high, and of the most noble and perfect proportions. It is called the Hall of the Ambassadors, and was the place of audience of the Moorish kings. With the loss only of a few of the details and some of the colouring, all here is nearly as it was left—marvellously grand and exquisitely beautiful. Out of the first court there is a passage opening into a second—the celebrated Court of Lions—communicating on one side with a small group of state rooms, the private apartments of the King and Queen, and on the opposite side with a room celebrated as the place where the Abencerages were murdered. On the third side is a singular oblong room or corridor called the Hall of Justice. I had not imagined that anything could be so beautiful as this Court of Lions. In the centre of the court is a fountain supported by some strange-looking figures, all of marble, and supposed to be meant for the lions themselves—whence the name of the court. All that there is here is of the most delicate and rich workmanship, and resembles nothing that I had seen elsewhere. The material is marble and plaster, but the plaster is almost as hard as the marble, and is decorated with rich colour as well as delicate

lace-like form. The roofs are inlaid wood-work, also very richly decorated with colour. The effects of light and shade in these places at evening, and when the sun is setting, are extremely fine, and the views from them of the town and plains of Granada and the distant mountains, lovely beyond expression. I have seen nothing nearly so beautiful, and quite participate in all the enthusiasm of the warmest admirers of the place. It is indeed chiefly beauty that is to be admired, for though there are some grand things, they are all so influenced by the beauty as to cause that to preponderate in all the effects produced. There is another Moorish palace close by, in the midst of the most rich, charming, and luxuriant gardens. It is called the Generalife, and also contains much Moorish work of the finest kind. Although my time was greatly limited, I paid a second visit to the Alhambra, and spent in all not less than eight or ten hours there during the two days of my stay in Granada; but I felt that I had, after all, merely looked at, and not seen it. It requires to be studied in detail. There are many other things in the town that people are taken to see, but I could not bring myself to visit them. Indeed the cathedral and churches seemed to me in miserable taste, and did not bear comparison with the Moorish architecture.

"As I do not pretend to be writing a connected and descriptive account of Spain, but merely my impressions while travelling hastily through those parts of the country that were not important in reference to the work I had in hand, I prefer leaving this description, imperfect as it is, to speak for itself, rather than write an elaborate account at second-hand to explain why this singular specimen of Moorish art impresses so strongly the imagination of persons not deeply informed in architecture, and judging merely by the eye. I confess to the general impression obtained from my visit to the Alhambra being more distinct and complete than I can remember from any other object of the like kind. I have, since writing the description, seen a good deal of Moorish architecture, both in Spain and northern Africa, but nothing has at all dimmed the impression, and I still regard the Alhambra as an architectural wonder worthy of all praise."

From Spain, Professor Ansted visited, on one occasion, the island of Sardinia, and returned greatly impressed with the characteristic hospitality of the people. At the close of 1852 he proceeded on an excursion to America, visiting the Ohio and Kanawha Valleys, and the Alleghanies and gold district of Eastern Virginia. Last year he made a trip to Algiers:—

"The first visit to a new country is, under any circumstances, a matter of considerable interest even to the hackneyed traveller; and when the new country is in a continent hitherto unvisited, and introduces one to the most complete change of habit, race, costume, and scene, the interest is naturally a good deal heightened. My first approach to the African coast was then a matter to which I looked forward with a good deal of interest.

"I left Marseilles in a little screw steamer, about three o'clock in the afternoon, on the 18th September, 1853, and after a very stormy passage of sixty-three hours, arrived within sight of the chain of the lesser Atlas mountains, and the small coast range on which the city of Algiers is built, just before sunrise on the morning of the 21st. The scene was striking. The distant mountains are very distinctly marked, and present a bold, rugged outline, serving as a background. The hills rising immediately from the shore were partly covered with vegetation and partly occupied by the town, of which the houses rise one above another in irregular order almost to the top, which is occupied by a fine ancient Moorish fortress and palace, called the Kasbah. Everything constructed is, without exception, either covered with whitewash or built of white marble; and the odd mixture of small square houses with flat roofs, small chapels with domes, larger mosques with domes and minarets,

and some public buildings of recent date, gave a character to the scene altogether different from anything I had seen. The town is quite compact, and nearly triangular; the point of the triangle being the top of the hill 500 yards above the sea. It is included within walls, but there are numerous small suburbs at some distance, all of the same character; and these, with a few isolated houses and religious buildings, add to the picturesque effect.

"Jutting out into the sea a considerable distance is a T-shaped jetty, forming an artificial but apparently well-sheltered port, within which I saw numerous steamers and other vessels. Boats, with the singular sails so usual in the Mediterranean, were sailing about, lazily enough; and several small boats came out to meet us, manned with Arabs. We landed, and made our way into the town, whose first aspect and modern streets are so essentially French as not to attract much attention. In this way I reached my hotel without any particular adventure.

"I soon, however, sallied out on a voyage of discovery, and was at once struck with the people and costumes. In the principal market-places, near the Place-Royale, were groups of Arabs, Moors, native Africans of the northern tribes of the interior; others from greater distances, and many Negroes, mingled with French, Italians, Spaniards (chiefly from the Balearic Islands), &c., all in their peculiar costumes. The chief objects for sale consisted of fruit, and included figs, peaches, pomegranates, bananas, prickly pears, pears, apples, grapes, and innumerable melons, all in great profusion and extremely cheap. The vegetables were not so varied. Men were the chief salesmen; but women of all kinds and costumes were seen about. The most striking, certainly, were the native Moorish women and Jewesses; the former enveloped entirely with white of greater or less fineness, according to the rank and fortune of the wearer. The dress is singular. They wear trousers quite full and tied in at the ankle, a singular and indescribable dress round the waist, and a kind of very thin white blanket, entirely concealing the form, and reaching to the mid-leg. The whole face and head, except the eyes, are covered with the same thin white material. Although I had often read of this, and seen figures of the women, the reality was extremely striking; and I could not help staring at every woman I met, for some time. They are, however, abundant enough; though I saw few that did not give me the idea of being old. In those less richly clothed, the feet were often visible, but in the others they were entirely covered.

"Next to the Moorish women, the Negresses were most curious; as they prefer gay colours, and their faces, and even arms and legs, are left quite uncovered. They wear head-dresses of turban shape, and striped scarfs, sometimes of very pretty material. The variety of race was very considerable, and many of them were really good-looking. Like the Moors, they wear large loose trousers, but these terminate at the knee, and their dress is altogether far more open than that of the white races. The Arab women, it is said, do not appear; and, except in the case of Moorish females, it is rather difficult at first to distinguish the men from the women. Many of the men, however, are very lightly clothed, and afford magnificent specimens of the various races to which they belong. Some are complete Turks, with their stern, gloomy aspect, and long beards and moustaches; others, Arabs or Jews, equally well bearded, but quite distinct; others again are closely clipped, like the French boys in Marseilles. Many offer interesting varieties of the Negro, or jet-black tribes, and some are as sinister and disagreeable-looking as most of them are quite placid and interesting.

"One of the first objects of interest at Algiers, where the domination of the French has enforced toleration, is a visit to the interior of a mosque. I went into one in the principal street, the only ceremony required being, that the shoes should be taken off; as, however, the whole interior was either carpeted or matted, this was no great matter.

free on a warm day. The mosque I first entered was a fine building, but of no great elevation. It measured, within the walls, about 180 feet by 150; and consisted of five principal aisles on two sides of the building, two aisles on a third, and one on the fourth; but towards this end (the south) is a small interior court, with a fountain placed towards its southern corner. At both the east and west end were small rooms apparently adapted for religious purposes; that at the east containing a copy of the Koran, while those at the west were bare, like the interior of the building. With the exception of matting, and some carpets, the whole was completely unfurnished; but there were a few niches and recesses rather more decorated than other parts. A number of persons were lying down in the building, and several were employed in drawing water and carrying it to the western end of the mosque; but I saw no appearance of worship of any kind, nor was there anything impressive or striking in the style of fittings or decoration. The aisles were formed by moresque arches of the usual form, many of them out of proportion, and all rather irregular. The windows were very low, and looked upon a small external gallery; and the doors consisted of openings in the wall, without other means of closing than a mat suspended before them."

In all the countries visited, Professor Ansted examined their physical geography, geology, and mineral resources, and he has recorded his views in the case of each locality in a separate chapter. The remarks are slight, but the author professes to give no more than extracts from his note-book, and as such they may be read with lively and agreeable interest.

The Poetry of Christian Art. Translated from the French of A. F. Rio. Bosworth.

THE title of this volume is less indicative of its actual contents than of the spirit in which it is written. It chiefly consists of historical sketches of early Italian art, with biographical notices of artists, and critical comments on their lives and works. One great object of the author is to proclaim the high vocation of the artist, in embodying and expressing religious truth and feeling. He shows that this was the motive which inspired the early Christian artists, and which, "notwithstanding the technical difficulties by which they were surrounded, gave that surpassing purity and unearthly character to their compositions which are sought for in vain in the works of the later painters." In tracing and illustrating this affinity between religion and art, the author is sometimes led into extravagance of sentiment and language, as is apt to be the case with admirers of pre-Raphaelism, and there is a tendency to mysticism, inconsistent with sound judgment and healthy taste. But in a writer so imbued with his subject, some excess of enthusiasm is pardonable, and we overlook his occasional errors and exaggerations in admiring the true spirit of Christian poetry which breathes through his pages. We do not wonder that Mrs. Jameson says, in the introduction to her '*Poetry of Sacred and Legendary Art*,' that she refers to M. Rio's "charming and eloquent descriptions of Christian art with ever fresh delight," nor that dogmatic Mr. Ruskin, generally most sparing in his acknowledgments and his praises, quotes this work with respectful approval. Seldom, indeed, has any writer on art combined more hearty enthusiasm with solid learning and accurate information, so that the book will at once interest and delight the student of art.

The work commences with an account of

the earliest Christian painting, first in the catacombs, afterwards in the basilicas, dating from the reign of Constantine, and the triumph of Christianity over Paganism in the Roman empire. The different developments of the Roman and the Byzantine schools are briefly traced. In the thirteenth century the various schools of painting began to arise in Italy, each with its series of traditions, which were transmitted from generation to generation, modified or guided into new directions by the genius of artists, or by local and temporary circumstances. The school of Siena was the earliest of these, anticipating by more than half a century the claims of Florence to the cradle of modern art:—

"At the time when artists and historians employed themselves in collecting materials for a history of art, the city of the Virgin had already lost her riches and her liberty; the insalubrity of her marshes deterred the greater number of travellers from visiting her, and the laureate painters of the grand dukes of Tuscany had succeeded in consigning to oblivion even the names of the greater portion of the Sienese artists. The slight notice which Vasari deigns to take of them does not even excite a suspicion of the importance of certain of their works: this is the more inexcusable, when we consider that the ancient edifices of this despised republic were still standing, with their original decorations, and that, in its authentic archives, the necessary dates, names, and indication of works might have been found, proving the existence of a Sienese school in the thirteenth century, and establishing the fact with a degree of certainty which does not exist for that of Florence before the epoch, when its real founder, Giotto, flourished.

"The curious picture by Guido da Siena, which still exists in the church of the Dominicans, certainly a remarkable work for the time at which it was executed, bears the authentic date of 1221, and as contemporaneous with the cathedral; as are also the fountains and aqueducts which adorn the lower part of the city, now so deserted. It was then that Siena entered on an era of prosperity, which may be said to have been crowned by the victory of Montaperti, gained over the Florentines in 1260."

In the account of the Florentine school, after recording what is known of Cimabue, the rise of Giotto is thus described, the narrative illustrating the passage of Dante—

"Credette Cimabue nella pittura
Tener lo campo ed ora ha Giotto il Grido."

"One day Cimabue perceived a shepherd boy, who, while tending his flock, amused himself by sketching a sheep; this shepherd was Giotto, who was destined to work so great a revolution in painting. His mission of regenerator was not confined exclusively to the Florentine school: invited successively by all the principal cities of Italy, he everywhere set the example of contempt for the Byzantine traditions, unmindful of the germs of excellence which certain of them might contain, and respecting neither the costume nor even the conventional arrangement which had always been adopted in the old Christian representations. This was precisely the period when modern architecture freed itself from the classic yoke, and when, in consequence of a still more important emancipation, the empire of the vulgar idiom became universally recognised. As the revolution effected by Giotto belongs to this great movement of independence, I shall not, with Rumohr, reproach him of (with) having given to Art an almost pagan direction, and invested her with a purely human character; neither shall I attribute his innovations to a certain indifference for the dignity of the objects he had to represent. The testimony of Ghiberti, who was more competent than any one to appreciate him, from the period in which he wrote, is no less energetic than decisive: he says that Giotto changed *art de fond en comble*, transforming it from Greek

into Latin. Cennino makes use of precisely the same language, only he confines his observations to the change in the technicalities; Ghiberti to the choice of the subjects, and the manner of treating them. It does not appear that, in separating himself thus boldly from received models, Giotto scandalized the grave personages of his time, since he reckoned Petrarch among his admirers, who in his will bequeathed, as the most worthy offering to the Signor of Padua, a Madonna by Giotto, of 'which the uninitiated, indeed,' he says, 'do not comprehend the beauty, but before which the artist stands in mute astonishment.' Boccaccio, who says that Nature produces nothing that Giotto does not imitate, even to illusion; Dante, whose words are no less significant than precise; and Giovanni Villani, who places him above all other painters, in still more express terms.

"A novel of Sacchetti's, in which Giotto figures as a pleasant and joyous personage, abounding in happy repartees, throws much light on the personal character of this artist. One day, returning with his friends from the *fête* of S. Gallo, they entered the church of S. Marco, in which was a picture of a Holy Family, and Giotto, being asked why the Virgin was always represented with an expression of melancholy, he successfully vindicated this treatment of the subject. All his replies denote a clear and calm intellect, a penetrating and observant mind, by no means disposed to disdain the realities of life. His little poem against voluntary poverty is stamped with the same impress; so that, in comparing these peculiarities with the works themselves which remain to us, a tolerably just idea may be formed of the kind of mission that Giotto was charged to accomplish.

"Of the innumerable paintings which he left behind him in the principal cities of Italy, only a few fragments now remain that can be considered authentic. All the works he executed at Avignon, Milan, Verona, Ferrara, Urbino, Ravenna, Lucca, and Gaeta, have either been involved in the ruin of the edifices that contained them, or have disappeared to make room for the more elegant works of succeeding centuries. But at Padua, in the small chapel of the *Arena*, built in 1303, may still be admired the principal scenes in the life of Jesus Christ, which Giotto painted three years later; assisted, it is said, by the counsels of Dante. It is, I believe, the only subject in which this artist did not permit himself to deviate in the slightest degree from the traditional arrangement of the figures; for example, the Transfiguration is there represented after the manner of the ancient mosaics, a mode of treatment that was followed at a later period by Raphael himself."

At the close of the chapter on the early Sienese and Florentine schools, the following recapitulation is given of the progress of painting, and the principal features which characterised it during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries:—

"In the first place, the Byzantine trammels have been broken through, and, as if to render all return to these miserable traditions impossible, art has derived its principal nourishment from legends comparatively modern, and exclusively in favour with the Christians of the West. The Crusades have commenced, and have had the effect of completely exposing the imbecility and baseness of the Greeks; and so great has been the retrospective effect of this antipathy between the two people, that the fathers of the Greek Church have rarely been united to the fathers of the Latin Church in religious representations. St. Jerome, St. Augustine, St. Gregory the Great, and St. Ambrose, have been placed immediately after the four evangelists; subsequently appears St. Francis and his sanctuary of Assisi, the centre of inspirations and pilgrimages during the whole of the fourteenth century: there all artists of renown have prostrated themselves in succession, and have left on the walls of the sanctuary the pious tribute of their pencil. The innumerable convents of the Franciscans have multiplied, to an infinite extent, the representations of the same subject, with which painters, monks,

and people, have at last become as familiar as with the Passion of Jesus Christ itself.

"If the history of St. Dominic has been less popular, it is owing to the original difference which exists in the two institutions, and which could not escape that in allible instinct which guided the artists in the choice of their subjects. The order of the Dominicans had been expressly founded with a view to action, and that of the Franciscans with a view to contemplation, which was much more in accordance with the end and the means of painting.

"The taste for dramatic subjects has not as yet showed itself. Notwithstanding the example given by the artists who had painted the Calendar of the Emperor Basil, no use has yet been made of the materials of art contained in the acts of the martyrs, —an inexhaustible collection of germs, full of life, but less in harmony than mystical subjects with the calm and majestic simplicity of a period which may justly be termed primitive. Other times brought with them different subjects and new inspirations. Important improvements have been introduced in the technical processes, in the composition of the colours, in the design of the figures, in the connexion of the groups, in lineal perspective, and even in expression, which has been successfully rendered more graceful and more varied.

"The progress of every kind made by the Florentine school has been advantageous to the other cities of Italy, who have either invited Florentine artists, or have sent disciples to them. This interchange was not discontinued after Giotto's time; and we see issue from the studio of the Gaddi family alone, an Antonio of Venice, another Antonio of Ferrara, and a Stefano of Verona. On the other hand, the route which conducted to St. Peter's at Rome is much too frequented to permit communications ever to slacken in that direction. Naples is not yet awakened; but Naples is a wreck of Byzantine civilization, which a handful of Norman adventurers found it easy to conquer, but not to regenerate.

"As to the objects on which art has been employed, they have been exclusively Christian, and may all be found in the litanies, which were at this time the favourite formularies of popular devotion. The artist who felt conscious of his high vocation considered himself as the auxiliary of the preacher, and in the constant struggle that man has to sustain against his evil inclinations, he always took the side of virtue."

The chapter on Savonarola, the Florentine reformer, is one of the most interesting portions of the book, and in tracing the influence exercised by him on Christian art, new features of his remarkable character are displayed. The more that is known of Savonarola the greater will be the veneration in which his memory must be held. Although he remained a faithful son of the Romish church, his bold denunciation of Papal tyranny and of the corruptions of Christianity has caused his name to be often covered with obloquy, and to be classed with revolutionists and heretics. A very different idea will be gathered from the account given of him in M. Rio's volume, having all the more authority as the testimony of a good Catholic:—

"Not to acknowledge in Savonarola the powerful logician, the accomplished orator, the profound theologian, the daring and comprehensive genius, the universal philosopher, or rather, the competent judge of all philosophies, would be giving the lie too boldly to history and to his contemporaries. We may possibly consider ourselves more likely to be right in refusing to him that exquisite sentiment of the beautiful in the imaginative arts, which is not always the privilege of the greatest genius, and which implies a sensibility of soul and a delicacy of organization as rarely to be met with in a recluse devoted to the mortifications of the cloister; and, nevertheless, it may be affirmed without any exaggeration, that all this was found united in a very high degree in Savonarola.

"He was no less keenly alive to the beauties of

nature, and he understood better than any one the sense of those beautiful words of St. Paul:—*'Tam multa genera linguarum sunt in hoc mundo, et nihil sine voce est.'* Fra Giacomo di Sicilia, who had the happiness of accompanying him in nearly all the excursions he made during a short stay in Lombardy, was often himself transported by the enthusiasm of Savonarola, when any imposing and varied scene burst upon their sight; they then made choice of some secluded and enchanting spot, and, seated in the shade upon the grass, opened the book of psalms, in order to find out an appropriate text for all these marvels of plain and mountain, which also in their language express the glory and greatness of God.

"We need not, then, be surprised to find artists and poets among the most devoted partisans of Savonarola, since it was in their ranks that the most ardent sympathy would naturally burst forth, not only because his eloquence kindled the sparks which inflamed their minds, but also because he restored them to the eminent position from which they had been insensibly displaced. I do not think that history has ever presented us with a hero whose name has been transmitted to posterity, surrounded by a more imposing circle of illustrious men of all descriptions; and we can hardly persuade ourselves that it is only of a simple monk we are speaking, when we enumerate the philosophers, poets, artists of every kind, architects, sculptors, painters, and even engravers, who all enthusiastically offered themselves, each in his vocation, as the docile instruments of his great social reform.

"At their head we must place the celebrated Pico della Mirandola. Even that universal scholar, who had already understood and admired so many things, was struck dumb with astonishment the first time he heard this extraordinary man. As the friend of Lorenzo di Medici, his admiration cannot be suspected; and this circumstance also adds weight to the testimony of Angelo Politiano, who, notwithstanding his predilection for profane literature, the especial object of Savonarola's invectives, yet represents him as a man equally remarkable for holiness and science, and who preached heavenly doctrines with unusual eloquence.

"The canon Benivieni, a poet of the platonistic school, still more closely connected with the court and prejudices of the Medici, published notwithstanding, at the time when the storm was beginning to gather over the head of the preacher, a most energetic defence, both of his doctrines and his prophecies.

"But there was no class of citizens who furnished so great a number of champions religiously devoted to his cause as the artists. Amongst these he found not only friends, but apostles and martyrs; and while some aspired to the glory of dying with him, others regarding the light of art as extinct, resolved, in the excess of their grief, to bid an eternal adieu to their pencil. All persevered in their enthusiasm until their death, thus honouring both their profession and human nature by a fidelity which the triumph of their enemies rendered difficult and even perilous."

We must restrict ourselves to giving one other extract relating to Perugino, the master of Raphael:—

"On his return to Perugia, at the age of thirty, he was charged with the execution of several works of importance, and acquitted himself in such a manner as to surpass the hopes his first attempts had excited. An Adoration of the Magi, which was taken to Paris, and restored in 1815 to its former possessors, and which is now shut up in a little chapel in the convent of Sta. Maria Nuova, must belong to this interesting period of Perugino's life, when, having added to his peculiar excellences all that appeared susceptible of assimilation, he commenced a spirited and original career, destined to be distinguished by new progress during twenty consecutive years. It was shortly after this period that Pope Sixtus IV. invited him to Rome, to paint three large compositions in the Sistine chapel, the most important of which, representing the *Assumption of the Virgin*, was mercilessly de-

stroyed under the pontificate of Paul III., to make room for the *Last Judgment* of Michael Angelo.

"The two others still retain almost all their freshness, particularly the first, in which the artist has represented the *Baptism of Christ*, and which unites all the picturesque details which add to the beauty of the landscape background, without lessening the effect of the principal subject. The fresh and varied vegetation, the river winding between the mountains and losing itself in the hazy distance, the beautiful ruin which seems an imitation of the Colosseum, the triumphal arch seen through the trees, and another building resembling the Pantheon,—all reveal the mind of a poet equally alive to the charms of Nature and of Art. The image of his native mountains associating itself to the impressions which the first sight of the monuments of Rome naturally produced, he could not resolve to separate them in his first work, and this explains their introduction in the fresco of the *Baptism*. That in which St. Peter receives the keys, the emblems of the power transmitted by him to his successors, is more simple and majestic in its arrangement, and in every respect worthy of the profound signification of the symbol represented in it. The architectural decoration is not too prominent; it consists of a circular temple surrounded by a portico, in the style of that seen in Raphael's *Spazio*, and is no less ornamental in the work of the master than in that of the disciple.

"It was now in Perugino's power to make a brilliant fortune at the capital of the Christian world: he was the favourite of the pontifical court, and, consequently, overwhelmed with commissions; while his ever-increasing success drove his rivals to despair. Besides his pictures in the Sistine chapel, those in the appartamento Borgia at the Vatican, in the Colonna palace, and in the church of San Marco, excited the greatest admiration. But his love for his native mountains prevailed over the temptations this rich harvest of glory offered, and he returned to Perugia with the determination never again to leave it.

"His genius was at this time in its full force and maturity, while it still retained the freshness and *naïveté* that marked his early works. His colouring had acquired vigour, his design had lost its timidity, and his types had been much improved, particularly that of the Virgin, whose cheek-bones are too prominent in his early pictures. Also it is not difficult to distinguish the works which belong to this period. The Madonna he painted for the chapel of the Signori, and which still exists there, is a proof of the progress he had made: in this picture we begin to recognise, or rather to have some faint idea, of the germs of excellence which were afterwards matured by the hand of Raphael, and the gradual development of which might, doubtless, be traced in Perugino himself up to his fiftieth year, if it were possible to establish any chronological order of succession in the works executed by him during this period, which terminates with the end of the fifteenth century.

"Unfortunately very few have a date inscribed on them, and we must be content to conjecture that of the others. The two frescoes of the Sistine chapel, the charming picture in the Palazzo Albani, and the *Madonna* of the Palazzo dei Signori at Perugia, painted in 1483, may assist us in forming a comparison between the contemporaneous or subsequent productions that issued in such numbers from his inexhaustible pencil. We may, indeed, without exposing ourselves to the reproach of too great indulgence, extend the limit of this remarkable fertility to the period at which he executed the frescoes of the *Salad el Cambio*; that is to say, to the year 1500: so that he may be considered to have flourished for nearly a quarter of a century, without any visible symptoms of decline.

"During this period all those magnificent pictures were executed, with which almost all the churches in Perugia were formerly adorned, and which are now for the most part dispersed in the principal cities of Italy, or even in foreign countries. There are two in the Vatican, which possess all the characteristics of the second manner of Perugino; the graceful oval of the Virgin's head has nothing

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in common with the angular contours and masculine forms of his early types. A *Madonna*, which adorns one of the side-chapels of the lower church at Assisi, struck me as being still more charming; and although, from the obscurity of the locality, I have only retained a faint recollection of the accessories, I have, nevertheless, a most clear and delicious impression of the principal figure.

"But we must seek the masterpiece of Perugino in Sant'Agostino at Perugia. This church possesses, besides four or five pictures in his first manner, an *Adoration of the Magi*, which formerly ornamented the church of St. Antonio, and the *predella* of which contained four busts of saints, of such exquisite beauty that Raphael has been commonly supposed to have had some hand in them. The picture itself is worthy of him, and may sustain a comparison, as regards the arrangement, the colouring, the drapery, the types, and the airs of the heads, with the most celebrated productions of the contemporaneous artists."

We have purposely avoided referring to any of the debatable topics of M. Rio's volume, and must leave to those of our readers who are specially interested in such subjects the discussion of his statements about the purity and piety of early Italian art, the antagonism of secular and sacred inspirations of beauty and taste, and the causes of the decline of painting from Pagan as opposed to Christian influences. The closing chapter on the Venetian school contains most interesting matter, and the bearing of religious and patriotic enthusiasm on the life and forms of art is here strikingly illustrated. While the narrative and descriptive parts of M. Rio's book chiefly relate to a particular period of the Italian schools of painting, its greater charm with most readers will be found in the genial and earnest manner in which he writes of the history and the poetry of art as an exponent of Christian truth and feeling.

A History of India under the First Two Sovereigns of the House of Taimur, Bâber and Humâyun. By William Erskine, Esq. Longman and Co.

It was the intention of the late Mr. Erskine to have written the history of the reigns of the Indian princes of the dynasty of Taimur, from the accession of Bâber to the end of the sovereignty of Aurengzib. After long study, he had collected ample materials for the work, but he only found time to complete the first portion of his task, the lives of Bâber and of Humâyun, the latter including a history of Shîr Shah and the Pattan princes by whom Humâyun was for a time driven from his throne. The history of Northern India may be divided into three great periods. The first extends from the earliest times to the invasion of Sultan Mahmûd of Ghazni, in the beginning of the eleventh century, and may be called 'the Hindû period.' The second reaches from that event to the invasion and conquest of Hindostan by Bâber, in the beginning of the sixteenth century, a space of rather more than 500 years, and may be denominated the 'Early Mohammedan period.' It includes the conquests and ascendancy of the monarchs of Ghazni, and of various other Tartar and Afghan dynasties. The third period extends from the conquest of Bâber to the present time, and exhibits the sovereignty of the house of Taimur, who have held the real or nominal power in India for the last 300 years. Of the history of the first two conquerors and rulers of this third period, the present volumes contain a learned and circumstantial narrative. In his translation

of the 'Memoirs of the Emperor Bâber,' Mr. Erskine has already presented to the English reader one of the original sources of his history. With that remarkable piece of autobiography, other contemporary and subsequent authorities were used by Mr. Erskine, whose intimate acquaintance with oriental literature, and zealous industry in conducting his researches, have enabled him fully to explore and elucidate this portion of the Mohammedan government of India. The importance of the subject is thus stated by the author:—

"The period, commencing with the invasion of Bâber, and ending with the death of Aurengzib, was chosen as containing a very memorable portion of Indian history. The preceding periods are less perfectly known. The period that follows presents to our view the decline, and, in the end, the breaking-up of the Empire. A history of the period between these two,—that of the earlier princes of the House of Taimur, containing their original entrance into the country, and the gradual progress of their arms, till the empire reached its entire and most flourishing state,—seemed to form a natural foundation for the modern history of India, when those later contests with Europeans began, which have changed the whole face of things. The early transactions of the Portuguese and Dutch affected only the outskirts of the empire: those with the French and English, during the last century, affected its very centre, and, in their results, have shaken it to pieces. The materials for the history of the two first periods are still chiefly contained in the languages of the East, while those of the last may be best drawn from the relations and State papers of Europeans.

"The author has indulged sparingly in any reflections on events, being rather desirous, by giving a faithful statement of facts, to let them speak for themselves.

"The volumes now offered to the public contain the reigns of Bâber and Humâyun. The whole life of the former was spent in camps. It was a period of transition, when the Government had not yet subsided into a regular form. Little progress towards settled institutions was made in the quiet reign of his son. It was not till the time of Akber that a regular attempt was made to reduce to a system some portion of the rules and customs of the country, and to combine them by the principles of a just and impartial legislation. Even that great and enlightened prince had, however, many difficulties, religious and political, to encounter; and as he was, in some instances, too much in advance of his age, and in others perhaps too fantastical, and had, besides, the misfortune to have a successor whose views differed from his own, many of his regulations died with himself.

"To some readers the account of the Tartars of the Kipchâk and of Moghulistan, contained in the Introduction, may seem to be too extended. But these tribes had great influence on the fortune of the founder of what has been called the Moghul Empire; and, without a considerable knowledge of their circumstances and transactions, much of the earlier portion of the history would be obscure."

A very interesting sketch is afterwards given of the general condition of affairs in Europe, as well as in Asia, at the period when the history commences. We quote only that portion in which he describes the political state of India at the beginning of the sixteenth century:—

"The immense conquests, first of Chengiz Khan, and next of Amîr Taimur, achieved by the Tartars whom they led from the North, were gradually broken down into a variety of smaller states that carried on wars among themselves, conquering or conquered by each other. It was not till the beginning of the sixteenth century, that the fermentation and change of form of its various kingdoms subsided in the East, much in the same way as had occurred in Europe.

"The Ottoman sultans had long been extending their dominions with fearful rapidity; and, in the beginning of the sixteenth century, added Egypt and some other provinces to their empire. About this period, however, the farther progress of their arms was nearly checked, by the consolidation of the power of their neighbours, both on the side of Europe and of Asia. Shah Ismâel, the founder of the Sefvi dynasty, having subdued all the smaller potentates of Irak, Azerbaïdjân and Fârs, and conquered Khorâsân, extended the Persian empire nearly to the limits which still bound it. The last great northern invasion was that of the Uzbek tribes, who expelled the descendants of Taimur from Transoxiana, and settled in that country, which they continue to hold to the present day. Bâber, a prince, as he himself tells us, 'born on the very farthest limits of the civilised world,' being expelled from his hereditary dominions by this irruption and settlement, made himself master of Kâbul and Kandahâr, which had previously belonged to another branch of the family; and finally extended his conquests into India, which has remained, down to our own times, the real or nominal kingdom of his posterity.

"These changes in Asia were nearly contemporary with those which have been mentioned as taking place in Europe; and, as the political system then introduced into Europe long suffered little alteration, the Musulman countries of the East, Turkey, Persia, Uzbekistan, and India, suffered no great change for centuries; except from the extended conquests of the Emperor of India to the south, which did not immediately affect his western neighbours; and at a later period from the conquests of Nâder Shah, as transient as they were alarming. Kâbul long remained attached to the Empire of India, as well as Kandahâr, which last, however, was occasionally the battle-ground between the monarchs of Persia and Hindustan.

"As the conquest of India in the sixteenth century was accomplished by Bâber, himself a Tartar, by means of his Tartar chiefs and followers, and as the whole of the earlier part of his life was spent among tribes of that race, and many of the institutions of his later life affected by theirs, it is necessary, before proceeding to narrate the incidents of his reign, to offer some observations on the original condition and subsequent fortunes of these sons of the desert; and especially to give a short sketch of the previous history of the two great tribes of Moghuls and Uzbeks, who chiefly influenced his fortunes in peace and in war, that the reader may be the better able to understand the transactions of Bâber himself, and his immediate successors, as well as to comprehend the peculiar spirit and principles of their government."

The life of Bâber from his earliest years was one of wildest romance and ceaseless adventure. He succeeded his father in the sovereignty of the small kingdom of Ferghâna, now Kokân, at the age of eleven years:—

"Small as was Baber's kingdom, yet as he was a scion of the race of Taimur, he had around him a miniature court composed of the whole establishment of grand officers of state, and of officers of the household, such as belonged to the most splendid and powerful monarch. The instability of the times filled the courts of princes with crowds of bold and needy adventurers. The government was a despotism, shared with the heads of tribes, and mitigated chiefly by the influence of such holy and religious families as those already mentioned, and by the power of insurrection and revolt; a dangerous instrument, of most uncertain operation, but to which the evils of misgovernment and feelings of despair often drove the subjects in the turbulent times that ensued.

"The news of the death of his father, Sultan Umersheikh Mirza, which happened at Akhsi on the 9th of June 1494, reached Bâber the following day at Andejân, where he was then living. The young prince instantly took horse, with such of his followers as were at hand, and without delay rode to secure the neighbouring castle. He had reached the gate, and was about to enter, when Shiram

Taghái, one of the nobles who attended him, being seized with sudden apprehension for his safety, laid hold of his bridle, and turned his course to wards the public Id-gah, or Prayer-Ground. In truth, Báber's situation was not free from danger. Sultan Ahmed Mirza of Samarkand was at that very time invading the kingdom with a hostile army; and it occurred to Shiram that, if the young prince entered the castle, the Begs of Andejan, who would thereby have him in their power, might make their peace with Sultan Ahmed by seizing and giving up his nephew. No sooner, however, was it known in the fort that the young Sultan was drawing back, than Khwaja Moulana Kazi, a man of the first weight, and the Begs who were in the place, sent to invite him to enter, assuring him of their hearty loyalty, and warmest co-operation."

He was not long on the throne before he was involved in hostilities with his uncle the Sultan of Samarkand. The renowned city of Samarkand, after a siege of some months, was taken by the youthful king, then in his fifteenth year. Of the city, as it then was, here is Mr. Erskine's account:—

"The city of Samarkand, the possession of which thus rewarded the perseverance of the youthful Báber, was one of the richest and most populous at that time in the world. It had been the capital of the great Taimur, and still maintained its pre-eminence in the countries which he had conquered. Báber gives us an interesting account of its mosques, colleges, and palaces. It was also ennobled by the observatory of Ulugh Beg. The astronomical tables there composed under the eye of that prince, excited wonder in his own time, and still enrich at least the history of science. The city was situated near the Rohik or Zir-efshan river, called also the Soghd, in a fertile and populous country, and in a delightful climate; and its territory was remarkable at once for its ample harvests and for producing the finest fruits in the world. Taimur boasted that in one of its districts, that of Soghd, which probably retained the original name of the ancient Sogdiana, he had a garden a hundred and twenty miles in length. Its manufactures of paper and of crimson velvet, which were celebrated wherever commerce extended, have been already mentioned. The whole country, from the Andejan and the Sirr, to the Amu, including Bokhara, Kesh and Karshi, was understood to belong to it. The inhabitants were celebrated for the refinement of their manners, their love of learning and skill in the arts. The Persian, we have seen, was the language of Samarkand and of all the other large towns, while the Turki tribes, who occupied parts of the open country, preserved their ancient tongue, and their ruder manners.

"As Báber did not enter Samarkand by storm, but on the invitation of its inhabitants, and would not sanction the general pillage of a city which he intended should be his capital, the crowd of adventurers, both Begs and soldiers, who had looked forward to the rich plunder that it was to afford as the reward of the toils which they had endured in a long siege, were extremely discontented. Though he bestowed on them such rewards as he had to give, they considered themselves as defrauded of the fairest and most natural recompense of their labours. He intimates, however, that his troops had somehow acquired considerable booty in Samarkand; but that, as all the rest of the country had submitted voluntarily, no kind of pillage whatever had been permitted elsewhere. It is probable that obnoxious individuals, or refractory quarters in Samarkand were plundered; and, as the arrogance of a victorious army is not easily checked, other irregularities might have been committed. The city, however, worn out from the long continuance of the blockade, for which it was not originally prepared or victualled; and the country, laid waste by the movements of hostile armies for two successive summers, had been reduced to a wretched condition; inasmuch that, instead of any supplies being drawn from the fertile fields around, it was absolutely necessary for the government to

furnish the inhabitants with seed-corn to sow their grounds, and with other supplies to enable them to subsist till the ensuing harvest. To levy contributions for his army from such a country was, as Báber himself remarks, quite impossible. His soldiers were consequently exposed to much distress, and he possessed no adequate means of satisfying their wants. The men began to drop off and return home. The example set by the soldiers was soon followed even by the leaders. All his Moghul horse deserted, and in the end Sultan Ahmed Tambahol, a Moghul nobleman of the first rank in Andejan, forsook him like the rest, and returned home."

While at Samarkand, his brother Jehangir revolted against his authority, and took possession of the kingdom of Ferghana. After some time he recovered his paternal dominion, but lost Samarkand. A second time he proceeded against the city, and took it by surprise in the year A.D. 1500:—

"He set out after noon from his quarters in the hills, and at midnight reached the bridge over the Meghák, which runs by the public pleasure-ground of the city. Halting there, he sent on seventy or eighty of his best men, with instructions to apply their scaling ladders to the part of the wall that was opposite to the place called the Lovers' Cave; when they had gained the parapet they were to push on against the party that guarded the Firozá gate, of which they were to gain and keep possession, and then to apprise Báber of their success by a messenger. The escalade succeeded. The top of the wall was gained without alarming the garrison, and the assailants moved along the ramparts as concerted; attacked and slew the officer in command at the gate, with a number of the guard; broke the lock and bars of the gate with hatchets, and flung it open. At the same moment Báber arrived on the outside, and entered. So far his enterprise was achieved by his own immediate adherents; but his other followers soon joined him. When he entered the town, the citizens were fast asleep. On hearing the uproar, the shopkeepers, he tells us, began to peep out fearfully from behind their doors, but were delighted when they found what had happened. The citizens, as soon as they were informed of Báber's entrance, being heartily tired of their barbarous masters, hailed him and his followers with acclamations of joy. They instantly rose and attacked the Uzbeks who were scattered over the town, hunting them down with sticks and stones wherever they could be found, and put to death between four and five hundred of them. The chief men of Samarkand, as well as the merchants and shopkeepers, now hastened to congratulate the young Sultan at his quarters, bringing him offerings and presents, with food ready dressed for him and his followers, at the same time pouring out prayers for their success. Báber, therefore, repaired to the college of Ulugh Beg, and took his seat under the great dome to receive the congratulations of all who came to salute him. Here, about daybreak, news was brought that the Uzbeks, though driven from every other part of the city, were still in possession of the Iron Gate. Without delay he leaped upon his horse, and accompanied by fifteen or twenty of his men who happened to be near him, galloped to the spot; but, on arriving, found that the mob had already assailed and driven them out of the town. Just as the sun was rising, Sheibani Khan, with about a hundred and fifty horse, was seen spurring on for the Iron Gate, but found as he came near that it was no longer in the hands of his troops. In the rapidity of his approach, he had left the rest of his army behind. 'It was a glorious opportunity,' says Báber, 'but I had with me only a mere handful of men.' Sheibani, finding that he was too late, rode back to meet his main body.

"Báber, still only in his eighteenth year, was elated with this signal success, achieved by his own sagacity and heroic spirit. He compares it with pride to the surprise of Herat by Sultan Hussein Mirza, Baikera, of Khorasan, the grand exploit of the most celebrated prince of the age, and justly

gives it the preference. But though he thus saw himself in possession of a noble capital, the smallest part of his work was yet accomplished. It was necessary to defend his throne by the same activity and valour by which it had been gained. His enemies were powerful, the country wasted, his own force but slender. Fortunately he had the affections of his new subjects. To relieve them, to have his followers more immediately under his own eye, and to watch the motions of the enemy, his first care was to march out of the city, and to encamp at a garden-palace in the suburbs. Here he was again waited upon by all the men in office, as well as by every person of consideration in the place, who all offered him their homage. The more polished and effeminate inhabitants of a great city viewed the rapacity, the rude manners, the strange and barbarous attire of the Uzbeks, fresh from their deserts, with mixed feelings of aversion and terror. The peasantry too, and the people of the villages, were naturally no less anxious to be delivered from the ravages of an insolent and marauding enemy. As soon as the young Sultan's success at Samarkand was known, many districts at once declared for him, several forts were put into his hands, and from many others the Uzbeks fled, without leaving a garrison."

Again we find Báber in adversity, Sheibani, the chief of the Uzbek Tartars, being summoned to dislodge him. Ferghana was again in the hands of Jehangir, and Báber had to wander as an exile. He repaired to Dehkát, a village among the mountains. In his autobiographical memoirs the king has left a record of his mode of life at this time. He and his followers lived in the houses of the peasants and shepherds:—

"'I lived,' says he, 'in the house of one of the head men of the place. He was an aged man, seventy or eighty years old. His mother was still alive, and had attained an extreme old age, being at this time a hundred and eleven. One of this lady's relations had accompanied the army of Taimur Beg, when he invaded Hindustan. The circumstances remained fresh in her memory, and she often told us stories on that subject. In the district of Dehkát alone, there still were of this lady's children, grandchildren, great-grandchildren, and great-great-grandchildren, to the number of ninety-six persons in life; and, including those deceased, the whole amounted to two hundred. One of her great-grandchildren was at this time a young man of twenty-five or twenty-six years of age, with a fine black beard. While I remained in Dehkát, I was accustomed to walk on foot all about the hills in the neighbourhood. I generally went out barefoot; and, from this habit of walking barefoot, I found that our feet soon became so hardened that we did not mind rock or stone in the least. In one of these walks, one day, between afternoon and evening prayers, having lost the road, we met a man who was going with a cow in a narrow path. I asked him the way. He answered, 'Keep your eye fixed on the cow, and do not lose sight of her, till you come to the issue of the road, when you will know where you are. Kwaja Ased-ulla, who was with me, enjoyed the joke, observing, 'What would become of us wise men were the cow to lose her way?' In some of these incidents we may trace a resemblance to the boyhood of Henri Quatre, wandering barefooted among the simple and hardy peasants of the mountains of his native Béarn; a training which he often acknowledged had fitted him more easily to endure and surmount the hardships of his future life. Adversity and difficulties in their early days have been, for obvious reasons, the best school for princes who were destined to become great. The stories told to Báber by the aged lady, in this remote village, concerning the wonders of India, probably fired his youthful imagination, and may have assisted in implanting that ardent desire, which he tells us he felt, at a later period, of visiting that distant land; and the fulfilment of which led to the most celebrated achievement of his life."

We cannot follow his varied fortunes, but pass on to give the account of his obtaining the summit of his ambition, the throne of Delhi, where he began his reign over India in 1526:—

"Báber now saw himself seated on the throne of Delhi, an object which had so long inflamed his ambition. Ever since the conquest of Kábul, two-and-twenty years before, he had never lost sight of it; and, in the course of the last seven or eight years, he had entered India five times at the head of an army, in furtherance of this his favourite object. In the earlier portion of his residence at Kábul, his views had been thwarted, sometimes by the turbulence of his Amírs, sometimes by the cabals of his brothers. As soon as these obstacles were removed, he had bent the whole powers of his mind to accomplish it. With just pride he remarks, that two foreign princes, besides himself, had conquered India, Sultan Mahmúd of Ghazni, and Sultan Sheháb-ed-dín Ghúri; but that he considered his own exploit as far surpassing either of theirs. That the former, a very powerful monarch, not only filled the throne of Ghazni, but that of Khorásán; and had the princes of Khwárazm subject to him, as well as the King of Samarkand; and had an army of between one and two hundred thousand men. While, as to Sultan Sheháb-ed-dín Ghúri, though not himself sovereign of Khorásán, yet his elder brother was; and he himself is said, on one occasion, to have marched into India at the head of a hundred and twenty thousand cataphract horse. His enemies, too, were only petty Ráis and Rajas; no single king governed Hindustán. That he, Báber, on the contrary, possessed only Badakhshán, Kunduz, Kábul, and Kandahár, countries which hardly supported themselves; and, though threatened by the Uzbeks on the north, who could bring into the field a hundred thousand brave soldiers, he had ventured, followed by only twelve thousand men, to attack Sultan Ibrahim, the monarch of all Hindustán from Bhitra to Behár, who had resources enough to have brought into the field five hundred thousand men, and had actually with him an army of a hundred thousand men, with a thousand elephants. 'In consideration of my reliance on Divine aid,' says the pious prince, 'the Most High God did not suffer the distress and hardships that I had undergone to be thrown away, but defeated my formidable enemy, and made me conqueror of the noble country of Hindustán. This success I do not ascribe to my own strength, nor did this good fortune flow from my own efforts, but from the fountain of the favour and mercy of God.'"

We have quoted enough to afford an idea of the stirring events which Mr. Erskine narrates in his history of the first of the Emperors of the Mogul dynasty. Báber is certainly one of the most remarkable characters in all history, and his life deserves to be better known than it has hitherto been by Europeans. The history of the reign of Humáyun is not less fertile in remarkable events. The minute details which Mr. Erskine has recorded render his book sometimes tedious, and most readers will despair of remembering more than a small proportion of the facts which are narrated. But as an authentic and complete account of the times to which it relates his work is worthy of all praise, and will henceforth be referred to as the authority on this period of Indian history.

NOTICES.

Guide to the Crystal Palace and Park. Second Edition. By Samuel Phillips. Illustrated by P. H. Delanotte. Bradbury and Evans.

In speaking of the Crystal Palace, Mr. Phillips remarks that "an institution intended to widen the scope and brighten the path of education throughout the land, must have time to consolidate its own powers of action, and to complete its own system

of instruction." The same may be said of the little volume before us. When the first edition of the 'Guide' was printed, many arrangements connected with the building and gardens were incomplete, whilst many that were then thought to be complete have been submitted to change. Experience and the voice of public opinion have worked alterations and improvements, new lists, new maps, and new plans have been suggested, and everything that could present itself to the mind to render a visit to the Crystal Palace easy, and its examination intelligible and pleasurable, has been brought to bear on the work by the author with his known plainness and skill. Every one visiting the Crystal Palace should enter 'Guide' in hand, and proceeding at once to the Central Transept, commence with the book at the Egyptian Court. All the Courts are then taken in succession, and by following the order in which they are described, the visitor may be sure of seeing everything in the best manner, in the least possible time, without confusion or hurry. Even the refreshment tariff is 'revised.' Ices are down to sixpence; and a capital dinner of cold fowl, ham, roast and boiled beef, roulade de veau, carbonade de mouton, and lobster salad, may be had for two shillings. With Mr. Phillips' 'Guide' no one need leave the Crystal Palace without being thoroughly refreshed in mind and body, and one day of such agreeable research will assuredly suggest another and another.

Synonyms of the New Testament. By Richard Chenevix Trench, B.D. Cambridge: Macmillan and Co.; London: John W. Parker and Son.

This volume contains the substance of a course of lectures on New Testament Synonyms, delivered by Professor Trench, in the Divinity School at King's College, London. The importance of this department of theological training is well stated by the author, in his prefatory remarks, when he says:—"I have never doubted that, setting aside those higher and more solemn lessons, which in a great measure are out of our reach to impart—being to be taught rather by God than man, there are few things which we should have more at heart than to awaken in our scholars an enthusiasm for the grammar and the lexicon." The study of the words of the inspired volume is the first and chief duty of the theologian, as the study of the facts of external nature is that of the natural philosopher; and in regard to both natural and revealed science, the highest aim of inductive research is the generalizing and arranging the ascertained truths, for the discipline of the mind and for practical application. As the philosopher is truly said to be *natura minister ac interpres*, so the theologian is *S. Scripture minister ac interpres*. For aiding in this interpretation and intelligent study of the words of the New Testament, the *συναγχα* of Christian theology, Professor Trench's book of synonyms will be found of much use. English students of the New Testament have not many good or accessible books on the subject. In Vömel's 'Synonymisches Wörterbuch' and Pillon's 'Synonymes Grecs,' of the latter of which a translation was edited by the late Rev. T. K. Arnold, some references to New Testament synonyms occur; but the only book expressly devoted to them is by Dr. Tittmann, 'De Synonymis in Novo Testamento,' published at Leipzig, 1829—1832, of which a translation appeared in the 'Biblical Cabinet,' Vols. 3 and 37, Edinburgh, 1833, 1837. Of Tittmann's labours Professor Trench has made use, as well as of the scattered comments on particular words in the works of annotators and lexicographers. But he has also added many original notices, evidently the result of personal research and reflection in studying the sacred text. Some of these are remarkable for critical acuteness and independent thought, as well as for accurate learning, and the volume is, therefore, even more valuable as an aid and incentive to similar studies on the part of the reader, than on account of the actual information which it contains. Only a selection of synonyms could be made in a course of lectures, but the examples in this volume are well chosen and ably handled, and the work is an acceptable addition to this department of theological literature.

Tours in Ulster: A Handbook to the Antiquities and Scenery of the North of Ireland. By J. B. Doyle. Hodges and Smith.

To the antiquities and scenery of the province of Ulster, Mr. Doyle has furnished in this volume an instructive and elegant guide book. Many strangers have visited the Giant's Causeway, Belfast, Derry, and a few of the best known localities in the north of Ireland, without being aware of the number of other places, rich in historic and scenic interest. Of these Mr. Doyle gives descriptions, with notices of the manufactures and commerce of this prosperous district. Maps accompany the volume, and numerous coloured lithograph illustrations, chiefly from the author's sketch-book.

The Fall of the Crimea. By Captain Spencer, Author of 'Russia, the Black Sea, and Circassia.' With Illustrations. Routledge and Co. The title of this volume, as it appears in the present crisis of public affairs in the East, is somewhat deceptive. The book has already been published under the name of 'The Prophet of the Caucasus,' and refers to the history of the wars between the Russians and the Tatars, especially that period when Catherine II. obtained possession of the Crimea. But there is much in the book that will be read with interest at this time, as it was written shortly after the author had undertaken an extensive tour in the Crimea and other places which are now the seats of war. It contains descriptive as well as historical notices of localities, with the names of which we are all likely to become more familiarly acquainted, including the principal strategical positions in the Peninsula, which were the scenes of hostile operations during the war between the Russians and the Tatars. The illustrations of the volume are described as "from original sketches of the Crimea in the possession of the author." The story of the hero of the book, Bey Mansour, is one of romantic interest, as he bore a renown in his day greater than that of Schamyl in our time, as the defender of the country against the unprovoked aggression of the Russian invaders.

SUMMARY.

Of *Lingard's History of England*, from the first invasion by the Romans to the Accession of William and Mary in 1688, a new edition, the sixth, is being issued in ten volumes (Dolman.) Dr. Lingard's work has taken its proper place in English historical literature, and public opinion is formed with regard to its faults as well as its great merits. The present edition is carefully revised, and contains additional matter. It is also appearing in weekly parts, sixty of which will complete the work. Four of the volumes are already published, in which the history is brought down to the year 1532.

The second volume of *Tricoupi's History of the Greek Revolution* (Taylor and Francis) has appeared, in which the author brings his narrative down to the year 1822, the last chapter containing an account of the siege of Mesalhonghi. Of the scope and subjects of M. Tricoupi's work we gave full account in noticing the first volume. Passing events in these regions have given additional interest to the study of modern Greek history and politics, and we may return to notice some of the statements and remarks of M. Tricoupi.

Dr. Henry White, author of various historical works for educational use, has prepared a *History of Scotland* from the earliest period to the present time (Oliver and Boyd), the facts of the narrative being carefully selected and clearly arranged, and a spirit of candour and impartiality being displayed in regard to subjects—and there are many such in Scottish history—admitting of diversity of statement. The book is a model of what a manual of history for school use ought to be.

A new edition, the third, is published of *The Book of South Wales*, the Bristol Channel, Monmouthshire, and the Wye, being a guide for the tourist and antiquarian in these localities, by Charles Frederick Cliffe (Hamilton, Adams, and Co.) This edition is revised by the Rev. George

Roberts, the author having died since the second edition appeared. Mr. Cliffe's qualifications as a writer on subjects of topography and archæology were of no ordinary kind, and the popularity of his 'Guide-book to South Wales' has proved the utility of his labours in that particular field. The volume is illustrated with maps and engravings. It is one of the most sensible and satisfactory of the many local guide-books which we have had occasion in different parts of the country to use.

A volume of *Sabbath Evening Readings on St. Luke*, by the Rev. John Cumming, D.D. (Hall, Virtue, and Co.), forms a continuation of the expositions on the New Testament, of which several parts have already appeared. By the same author there is a volume of *Sabbath Morning Readings on Leviticus* (J. F. Shaw), being, in the words of the preface, "simply running and popular comments intended for instructive and ordinary reading." Most of Dr. Cumming's books appear to have been first prepared for oral delivery in the course of his pulpit ministrations, and his popularity as a preacher secures for any of his publications a sale sufficient to tempt to frequent authorship. Under the title of *The Ark in the House*, is published a series of family prayers for a month, with prayers for special occasions, by the Rev. Barton Bouchier, M.A. (J. F. Shaw). For use in schools, families, and general reading, is prepared *A Popular Abridgment of Old Testament History*, and a similar *Abridgment of New Testament History*, by J. Talboys Wheeler (Hall, Virtue, and Co.) The text is elucidated by historical and geographical illustrations, maps, and diagrams. These abridgments as literary performances are remarkably concise, clear, and well arranged; and in preparing them as text-books for imparting information, the writer has not omitted to provide for moral discipline in their educational use. Mr. Wheeler's former works, the *Analyses and Summaries of Old and New Testament History*, have been found of great value for the use of theological students and the pupils of higher classes in schools. The abridgments are equally well adapted for the objects for which they are designed, and will be useful as introductions and helps to the study of Bible history and geography by the young.

The alarm and danger consequent upon the fresh outbreak of cholera secure attention to every suggestion made by practitioners of knowledge or experience. A pamphlet is published by Mr. John Grove (Ridgway) on *Sulphur as a Remedy in Cholera and Diarrhæa*. Mr. Grove affirms, as the result of his own observation and practice, that sulphur acts both as a prophylactic and a remedy; and he quotes the opinion of medical men in India as well as at home in support of his views. The proportion of fatal cases under every form of treatment have been hitherto so great, that there can be little objection to trying any remedy that is recommended as beneficial; and the facts recorded in Mr. Grove's pamphlet deserve the careful consideration of medical men.

LIST OF NEW BOOKS.

- Ansted's (Professor) *Scenery, Science, and Art*, 8vo, 10s. 6d.
 Armstrong's (A.) *Sermons*, 8vo, cloth, 12s.
 Baker's (A. E.) *Northamptonshire Glossary*, 2 vols., £1 4s.
 Barker's (F.) *36 Psalms*, 12mo, cloth, 5s.
 Brande's *Lectures on Organic Chemistry*, fcap. 8vo, 7s. 6d.
 Charles Delloway, 18mo, cloth, 2s.
 Christmas Stocking, 12mo, cloth, 1s. 6d.
 Claudius Bolio, 12mo, cloth, 4s.
 Dunkley's (H.) *Charter of the Nations*, 8vo, cloth, 10s. 6d.
 Gryll's *Sketch of the Windows of St. Neot's*, Cornwall, 3s.
 Guyon's (Madame) *Life*, by T. C. Upham, 8vo, cloth, 10s. 6d.
 Ida May, fcap. 8vo, boards, 1s. 6d.
 Kings of England, 4th edition, 12mo, cloth, 3s.
 Lectures on History of England by a Lady, 12mo, 7s. 6d.
 Lotthrop's *Glen Luna*, post 8vo, cloth, reduced, 3s. 6d.
 Matthew Paxton, 3 vols. post 8vo, cloth, £1 11s. 6d.
 Pereira's *Lectures on Light*, 2nd edition, fcap. cloth, 7s.
 Ruff's *Guide*, Autumn Supplement, 12mo, cloth, 1s.
 Rutherford's *Children*, 12mo, cloth, reduced, 1s. 6d.
 Scott's (H.) *Baltic, &c.*, post 8vo, cloth, 7s. 6d.
 Sewell's (W.) *Year's Sermons to Boys*, 2nd edition, 7s. 6d.
 Smith's *School Arithmetic*, crown 8vo, cloth, 4s. 6d.
 Stoquer's (J. H.) *Handbook to British India*, post 8vo, 9s.
 Taylor's *Life and Landscapes from Central Africa*, 7s. 6d.
 Thackeray's (W. M.) *Newcombes*, Vol. 1, 8vo, cloth, 13s.
 Thornton's *Gazetteer of India*, 4 vols. 8vo, cloth, £4.
 Weibrecht's *Memoirs*, 2nd edition, post 8vo, cloth, 7s. 6d.

Wesley's *Poetical Version of the Psalms*, 12mo, cloth, 4s. 6d.
 Wetherell's *Quechee*, 2 vols., 3s. 6d.; 1 vol., 2s. 6d.
 Wide Wide World, 2 vols., 3s. 6d.; 1 vol., 2s. 6d.
 Williams's (Archdeacon) *Life of Julius Caesar*, 12mo, 5s.
 Wilson's *Tables of Seamen's Wages*, 2nd edition, 8vo, 10s.
 Woolaston's (T.) *Insecta Maderensis*, 4to, cloth, £2 2s.
 Wordsworth's *Religious Restoration*, 8vo, cloth, 8s.
 Young's (S.) *Key to Arithmetic*, 4th edition, 12mo, 4s.
 Young Marooners, 12mo, cloth, 2s.

DR. STOCKS, F.L.S.

SCIENCE has sustained a severe loss in the death of Dr. J. Ellerton Stocks, of the Bombay medical staff, one of the most talented officers in the service of the Hon. East India Company, and a highly accomplished botanist. Dr. Stocks is best known to the scientific world by his travels and explorations in Beluchistan and Scinde, in which latter country he spent the greater part of the term of his service, at first as vaccinator, and latterly as inspector of drugs. So great was Dr. Stocks' knowledge of the native character, and such was the confidence he inspired in those around him, that he was enabled to penetrate further into Beluchistan than any previous traveller had done since our armies quitted Afghanistan; his singleness of purpose and remarkable tact disarming suspicion even amongst the most jealous of the native princes. The zeal and ability displayed in his journeys induced the Bombay Government to appoint Dr. Stocks to the important and responsible office of Conservator of Forests, during Dr. Gibson's absence on furlough. On the return of that officer, Dr. Stocks was enabled to carry out his long cherished intention of visiting Europe on furlough, chiefly for the purpose of publishing the results of his scientific investigations. He arrived in England during the winter of 1853, bringing extensive collections of plants, which were temporarily deposited at Kew. After visiting his relations in the Isle of Man, he took up his abode at Kew, and devoted himself with much zeal and energy to the arrangement of his herbarium, and the preparation of a work on the geography, natural history, arts, and manufactures of Scinde.

During his residence at Kew he suffered much from neuralgic pains in the head and neck, which he considered a sequel of intermittent fever, but which were in reality caused by far more serious disease; and having completed the arrangement of his herbarium, he started upon a tour in the north of England, hoping thereby to throw off his painful affection, and to return with improved health and renewed vigour to his winter's labours. At the expiration of the period he had assigned to his absence, his friends were anxiously looking forward to his return to Kew, when they received the sad intelligence of his decease. During his stay with some very intimate friends at the place of his birth (Dottingham, near Hull), he was seized with an apoplectic stroke, from which he partially recovered; but a second, after an interval of ten days, carried him off.

Dr. Stocks was only thirty-two years of age, and to all appearance destined for a long and useful life. From his earliest youth he displayed remarkable talents, both at school and at University College, London, where he was distinguished not less for the vigour of his understanding, and the manliness of his character, than for his singularly amiable, cheerful, and engaging disposition; this he retained throughout his arduous and trying services in the east, when exposed at once to the most scorching climate of India, and to the harassing obstacles continually placed in his way by the jealous and suspicious natives. In the words of a brother officer who knew him well, "the service has lost in him one of its chief ornaments, and society a member who was most sincerely loved by every one that knew him." We may add, that he was no less beloved by those scientific men who had the privilege of his acquaintance in England, to whom his simple and agreeable manners and cheerful and affectionate disposition had much endeared him. His information was varied, extensive, and always trustworthy, and he had the power of communicating it both with fluency and perspicuity.

Botany, and especially that of India, has sustained a most heavy loss, for to an accurate acquaintance with the literature and fundamental principles of the science, he united an extensive knowledge of Indian plants, both systematical and economic; and he was as liberal with his specimens as with his information. Already have complete sets from his invaluable collections been communicated to several English and continental herbariums; and he was at the time of his death preparing the duplicates for a general distribution amongst the principal museums of Europe.

For a proof of the extent and varied nature of Dr. Stocks' attainments, we would refer our readers to his letters to Sir W. J. Hooker, written during his travels, and published in the 'Journal of Botany'; and to the Kew Museum, in which are deposited complete sets of the economic products of the countries visited by him. The chief results, however, of his labours are embodied in the invaluable MSS. referred to, which contain a nearly complete account of the arts and manufactures of Scinde, systematically and skilfully drawn up, and which are unparalleled for the amount of unpublished information contained in them.

PHILIP BARKER WEBB.

INTELLIGENCE has also reached us this week of the sudden death, on the 31st ultimo, from cholera, at the age of sixty-two, of Mr. Philip Barker Webb, of Milford House, Surrey, but resident for many years past at Paris, in the Avenue Marbeuf, Champs Elysées. Mr. Webb has long been known in the scientific world by his very magnificent work, comprising several large quarto volumes, profusely illustrated, on the natural history of the Canary Islands, published, with the assistance of his fellow traveller and colleague, M. Sabin Berthelot, under the auspices of the French Government, at the time that the office of Minister of Public Instruction was filled by M. Guizot. Mr. Webb having become attached in early life to the study of natural history, more especially botany, was elected in 1818, when at the age of twenty-six, a Fellow of the Linnean Society; and eight years having elapsed, during which time he joined the Antiquarian and Horticultural Societies, he set out on a botanizing excursion in Spain. During two years, between the spring of 1826 and that of 1828, he examined more or less the whole of that fertile region which extends along the shores of the Mediterranean, from the foot of the Pyrenees to the mouth of the Guadalquivir. He then examined the plants throughout the greater part of Portugal, from Braga in the north to the chains of Cintra and Arrábida in the south; and crossing to the coast of Africa, continued his botanical researches from the mountains around Tetuan to the south of Cape Spartel. From thence, accompanied by a Spanish naturalist, Don José Naudó, who had assisted in forming his herbarium, Mr. Webb proceeded to Madeira and the Canary Islands. At Santa Cruz, Teneriffe, Don Naudó had occasion to return to Europe, and Mr. Webb formed the acquaintance of M. Berthelot, a French traveller of much scientific intelligence, who had been eight years in the island, and was zealously engaged in studying its physical geography, statistics, and natural history.

Occupied with the same views, and guided by the same energy, MM. Webb and Berthelot resolved to join company and examine the entire group, and two years were spent by the brother naturalists in forming collections of plants, shells, insects, fishes, and birds, and in investigating the geology and physical phenomena of the islands. In 1833 or 1834 MM. Webb and Berthelot returned to Paris, laden heavily with specimens, the fruit of their researches, and on the recommendation of M. Guizot, the French Government voted a sum of money for their publication. M. Berthelot undertook to write the narrative, the statistical, and the ethnological portions of the work, and Mr. Webb the descriptions and geographical history of the flowering plants. The first of these divisions is illustrated with sixty interesting plates of landscapes, costumes, &c., and the

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second with 278 plates. The remaining portions of the collection were described by the combined assistance of different Parisian naturalists: M. Valenciennes described the fishes, M. Alcide d'Orbigny the mollusca and shells, Dr. Montagne the sea-weeds, M. Moquin-Tandon the birds, M. Germain the reptiles, and MM. Brûlé, Lucas, and Macquart, the insects. The work comprised 106 livraisons, with 441 plates, and occupied fifteen years in the publication.

Mr. Webb was a gentleman of independent fortune, and wholly occupied himself with his natural-history pursuits. His herbarium is said to rank in Paris next to the renowned one of M. Benjamin Delessert, and botanists will probably be curious to know into whose hands it will pass. Mr. Webb visited England about two years since, and was zealously engaged in his botanical studies up to the very moment of his sad and melancholy death. Besides the great work above mentioned, Mr. Webb published a prodromus of his Spanish herbarium, and an occasional botanical paper in the 'Annales des Sciences,' of which the following are the titles: *Iter Hispaniense*; or, a Synopsis of Plants Collected in the S. Provinces of Spain and Portugal.—*Otia Hispanica*, 1853.—*Fragmenta Florule Ethiopico-Ægyptiacæ*, 1854.—*Sur le Groupe des Ulicinées*.—*Sur le Genre Retama*, &c.

TOPICS OF THE WEEK.

A LETTER has just been circulated by the veteran literary octogenarian and antiquary, John Britton, invoking the sympathy and generosity of his friends in aid of the publication of his 'Autobiography.' From the proof sheets we have seen of this work, we can bear very high testimony to its literary value. Mr. Britton has enjoyed the acquaintance and friendship of nearly all the celebrities in letters, science, and art, for more than half a century, and when we consider the powers of memory and facilities of correspondence with which he is still blessed, we look forward to the publication of his 'Autobiography' with no common interest. 'This work,' says Mr. Britton, 'has been in progress of writing and printing for more than five years; and would long since have been finished but for repeated attacks of illness, which not only unfitted me for the arduous task of literary composition, but prostrated my physical and mental powers for several months, at each successive fit. With reduced energies and spirit, I have, however, progressively renewed my labours, at intervals, and have printed nearly two large royal octavo volumes: besides another volume on the long-disputed and mysterious authorship of the 'Letters of Junius.' These, with a biographical memoir of an old and esteemed friend, Henry Hatcher, who wrote and printed much on the topography and antiquities of his and my own native county, with a variety of domestic and other engagements, occupied nearly the whole of that time which I had a right to calculate on for relaxation and personal amusement, after so many years of sedulous workmanship as I had devoted to professional and worldly pursuits. Though past my eighty-fourth year, I feel more than commonly desirous of finishing the 'Autobiography,' which I voluntarily, but too hastily, promised to publish and present to those kind friends who had honoured me by a complimentary testimonial, for services rendered to the cause of archaeological literature and the fine arts of our country. That testimonial was voluntary and spontaneous from friends who considered that I had not been fairly or generously dealt with by the Prime Minister, in distributing the annual government grant of twelve hundred pounds. Whilst many literary persons have been rewarded and benefited by annuities of from three hundred to one hundred pounds, and for publications much inferior in amount and public usefulness than those by myself, I was overlooked by two ministers, and only recognised by another, with seventy-five pounds per annum, from the civil list. Fortunately, I have saved enough to secure for old age and consequent infirmity, the common comforts which prudent habits require; but cannot help feeling a

deep anxiety for the future welfare and happiness of a person who has contributed essentially to my own. If life and health be granted me for a few more months, I hope and expect to finish a work which will unfold to its emulous readers the career, the zealous exertions, and the varied labours of an author, who has struggled with difficulties to attain a respectable station in the ranks of literature and intellectual society, in a country which has attained high and unparalleled renown in the annals of the world. Of my 'Autobiography' one volume is completed, and 400 pages of another; and about 100 more pages will bring it to a close. Though the testimonial subscriptions amount to about 1000*l.*, I have expended more than that sum in drawings, engravings, paper, and printing; whence I feel it right to intimate that each octavo copy of the work will cost me at least 35*s.*, and I may indulge the hope that each subscriber of one guinea will not allow me to be a loser of money as well as time.' This from a gentleman of Mr. Britton's years and assiduous literary experience, should find a prompt response in every sympathetic heart.

Messrs. Longman and Co. have issued a list of thirty-six 'New Works, Preparing for Publication during the Approaching Season,' among which are some of promising interest. In addition to Mr. Disraeli's 'Thirty Years of Foreign Policy,' noticed last week, we may mention 'Memoirs of the Life and Writings of James Montgomery: including Selections from his Correspondence and Conversations,' by John Holland and James Everett; 'Memoirs of Sir Robert Strange, Engraver, including his Artistic Life; and of his Brother-in-Law, Andrew Lunisdin, Private Secretary to the Stuart Princes, and author of 'The Antiquities of Rome,' by James Dennistoun, of Dennistoun; 'The Autobiography and Literary Journal of the late Henry Fylen Clinton, Esq., M.A., Author of the 'Fasti Hellenici,' the 'Fasti Romani,' &c.,' edited by the Rev. C. J. Fynes Clinton, Esq., M.A., Rector of Cromwell, Notts; and two more volumes of 'Moore's Journal and Correspondence.' Among books of travels, 'The Baltic; its Gates, Shores, and Cities: with a Notice of the White Sea, &c.,' by the Rev. T. Milner, M.A., F.R.G.S.; 'The Chinese Empire: a Continuation of Huc and Gabet's 'Travels in Tartary and Thibet,' by the Abbé Huc, many years Lazarist Missionary in China, translated from the French with the Author's sanction; 'Rambles in Iceland,' by Pliny Miles, Esq.; 'Gleanings from Piccadilly to Pera,' by Captain J. W. Oldmixon, R.N.; and 'A Diary in Turkish and Greek Waters,' by the Earl of Carlisle; and of miscellaneous subjects, 'A Geographical Dictionary of the Holy Scriptures, including also Notices of the chief Places and People mentioned in the 'Apocrypha,' by the Rev. A. Arrowsmith, M.A., late Curate of Whitechurch, Salop; 'A Popular Harmony of the Bible,' by H. M. Wheeler; 'Traditions and Superstitions of the New Zealanders, with illustrations of their Manners and Customs,' by Edward Shortland, M.A., Cantab., Extra-Licentiate of the Royal College of Physicians, Author of 'The Southern Districts of New Zealand'; 'Handbook of Zoology,' by J. Van der Hoeven, M.D., Ph.D., Professor of Zoology in the University of Leyden, translated from the German by W. Clark, M.D., F.R.S., late Fellow of Trinity College, and Professor of Anatomy in the University of Cambridge; 'A Handbook of the Greek Drama,' by Edward Walford, M.A., late Scholar of Balliol College, Oxford, and formerly Assistant-Master of Tunbridge School; 'A Treatise on Greek Metres: with the Choral Parts of Sophocles metrically arranged,' by the Rev. W. Linwood, M.A., Editor of 'The Plays of Sophocles, with Short Latin Notes for Students,' a new edition, by the Rev. Baden Powell, of Pereira's 'Lectures on Polarized Light,' and, with the view, probably, of competing with the Government book shop, a new series, by Mr. Gleig, of elementary school books, each book (in most instances) complete in itself at one shilling.

Professor Airy has published a letter in testimony of his sense of the valuable assistance derived by him in his astronomical researches from the

Electric Telegraph Company. "It is most honourable to our great commercial bodies," says the Astronomer Royal, "that they have practically shown so much readiness to aid in enterprises of scientific character, that accredited men of science feel no difficulty in asking their assistance. We may congratulate the world on the growing tendency towards a closer union between science and commerce. The advantages to science in such instances as that which has formed the special subject of our comments need no further explanation. The advantages to commercial bodies, though less obvious are equally certain. It is no small matter that these associations are enabled, without any offensive intrusion, to acquire the character of patrons of science, that the world is ready to acknowledge itself their debtor for assistance not promised in their original constitution. The exhibition of beneficial power without any prospect of immediate pecuniary advantage removes the mercenary element which might seem to be engrafted in their original formation; and commerce thus acquires dignity from its friendly union with science."

The Wilts Archaeological and Natural History Society, founded on the large collection of topographical books, drawings, prints, manuscripts, and models, collected, during a long and active life, by Mr. John Britton, and located in his native county at Devizes, will hold its first annual meeting on Wednesday next, and following days, at Salisbury, under the presidency of Mr. Sidney Herbert. The members will be received on Wednesday, at half-past twelve, in the Council Chamber of the Mayor, where a temporary museum of antiquities and specimens of natural history has been formed. Addresses will be delivered there, and papers read on subjects of interest connected with the county, and a conversazione will be held in the evening. On Thursday the members will be received by the President, at Wilton House, and the Bishop of Salisbury will hold a conversazione in the evening at his Palace. The remaining days will be occupied in visiting (in Salisbury), the Cathedral, Chapter House, and Parish Churches, the Poultry Cross, the Halle of John Halle, Ancient Architecture at the Workhouse in Crane-street, the Hostelry of the George in High-street, Trinity Hospital, Norman Sculptures in the walls of the Close, Cathedral Porch in Mr. Wyndham's Gardens, and Saint Nicholas Hospital; (in the neighbourhood,) Saxon Cemetery at Harnham, Ancient Mill at Harnham, the "Moot," at Downton, Remains of the Royal Palace at Clarendon, British Hill-City and remains of Old Sarum, Manor House of Lake, Stonehenge, Tumuli and Cursus, Ancient Earthworks and Vespasian's Camp, the Churches of Bishopstone, Britford, Burcombe, Chalk, Coombe, and Laverstock, and the Byzantine Church at Wilton. Ladies and gentlemen, not members of the Society, wishing to be present at the various meetings, and to join in the excursions, will be admitted as subscribers, gentlemen, 10*s.* 6*d.*, ladies, 7*s.* 6*d.* each.

Some districts of London have this week presented the gloomy aspect of "a City of the Plague," from the deadly visitation of cholera. In the neighbourhood of Soho and Golden-squares, the mortality has been greatest. For some days it was impossible to provide coffins in sufficient number for the poorer classes, and after, in several instances, putting two bodies into one coffin, the dead were sewn up in canvass and carted away. The thoroughfare through some of the worst streets was stopped, lime was strewn on the ground, and other precautions taken in the dangerous precincts. The outbreak of the disease in this locality has been attributed to the disturbing of the soil of the plague-pit, where the bodies of the dead were thrown in 1666. More probably the over-crowded population of the district, and the badly managed sewerage, the gullies being almost all untrapped, are the real causes of the malignant form of the epidemic. Amidst the alarm naturally caused by this state of matters, although the extent of the evil is kept as quiet as possible, it is satisfactory to know that the new Minister of Public

Health is actively engaged in his duties. A medical council has been formed to afford professional advice, including some names of the highest distinction—Brodie, Paris, Lawrence, Owen, Clark, Alderson, Babington, Tweedie, Baly, Simon, Ward, Bacot, and Farr. Whatever science, skill, and experience can effect, in all that relates to public health, will be secured by the advice of this Medical Council, acting with the Board of Health, and other official bodies, brought at this juncture by Sir Benjamin Hall into co-operation.

To the numerous monumental memorials of the Duke of Wellington, another is about to be added at Norwich, where a bronze statue, the work of Adams of Chelsea, is about to be erected. While speaking of public statues, we would suggest, as a commanding and appropriate site for the City statue of Sir Robert Peel, the space now open in St. Paul's Churchyard. We understand that 60,000*l.* have been offered for the space to the Corporation for building, but there is enough public spirit in the Council to have rejected the proposal, and the site will probably be left at the disposal of the Government, if the Woods and Forests can meet the Corporation by some fair and reasonable arrangement. If this is the case, we hope to see the erection of the statue of Sir Robert Peel on the site.

In noticing last week the death of Mr. W. Brockedon, we omitted to mention that he had distinguished himself in early life as a sketcher and painter, and latterly by an invention of great utility to artists in the manufacture of lead pencils. By dint of much practical ingenuity, he invented a means of compressing the waste plumbago into cakes, and these were cut into slabs for insertion in pencils with the lead in a purer state for drawing than before, as the waste being reduced to powder, he was enabled during the process to take out the grit. One of the best productions of Mr. Brockedon's easel may be seen in the altar-piece of St. Saviour's Church, Dartmouth—a picture of very large size, representing the *Raising of the Widow's Son*, which Mr. Brockedon painted and presented to his native town. One of his finest published works was, 'Illustrations of the Passes of the Alps by which Italy communicates with France, Switzerland, and Germany,' and also an 'Illustrated Road-Book of the Route from London to Naples.'

The Old Water Colour Society have lost a valuable member this week in Mr. C. Bentley, whose charming marine pictures, which have made a distinguished show in the annual exhibition for many years past, will be greatly missed from this delightful school of British art. Mr. Bentley was seized with cholera on Monday last, and died in a few hours. His age was forty-eight.

The Worcester Musical Festival has this week been celebrated with brilliant success. On Tuesday the opening services were conducted in the cathedral, in presence of the city officials, and a numerous company of distinguished visitors who are attending the festival. The musical part of the performance included chants and responses by Tallis, Handel's Dettingen 'Te Deum,' Purcell's Anthem, 'O sing unto the Lord,' and Handel's Coronation Anthem. The sermon in the cathedral was preached by the Rev. C. R. Somers Cocks, vicar of Wolverley, and the collection for the charity amounted to 255*l.* 10*s.*, being 40*l.* more than on the corresponding day in 1851. The programme of the first evening concert included a selection from Mendelssohn's *Midsummer Night's Dream*, and a variety of miscellaneous pieces, given generally with admirable effect. Mesdames Viardot, Castellani, Clara Novello, and Messrs. Sims Reeves, Formes, Weiss, and Gardoni, were the chief vocal performers. In the performance of *Elijah*, on Wednesday, the principal vocal parts were taken by the same singers, and by Miss Dolby. Seldom has so powerful a distribution been obtained, and the effect of the organ and orchestral music was grand and imposing. Beethoven's Pastoral Symphony, and the finale of Mendelssohn's *Lorely*, formed part of the Wednesday evening's programme. On Thursday, in the cathedral, Haydn's

Creation, and Spohr's *Last Judgment*, were the oratorios. The closing portion of the festival, and the financial results, we hope to give satisfactory account of next week. The Norwich Festival commences on Monday.

The performances of 'the legitimate drama' at Sadler's Wells at this season, when most of the other theatres are closed, deserve special notice and commendation. *Cymbeline* was produced this week, and Mr. Phelps is preparing other intellectual and dramatic treats for the admirers of Shakspeare and the genuine old English plays. At the Haymarket the Spanish dancers still attract crowded houses, and tempt the manager to keep the theatre open. The Lyceum is occupied by Mr. Henry Russell, whose vocal and conversational entertainment is as popular with London audiences as ever, though the emigration songs have lost some of the point and practical influence of former years.

PROCEEDINGS OF SOCIETIES.

ROYAL INSTITUTION. — May 19th. — W. R. Grove, Esq., Q.C., F.R.S., Vice-President, in the Chair. J. Tyndall, Esq., Ph.D., F.R.S., Professor of Natural Philosophy in the Royal Institution, 'On some Phenomena connected with the Motion of Liquids.' The Lecturer commenced by referring to certain phenomena exhibited by liquids, and at variance with our commonly received notions as to their non-cohesive character. According to Donny, when the air has been as far as possible expelled from water by persistent boiling, such water possesses an extraordinary cohesive power, sufficient indeed to permit of its being heated to a temperature of 275° Fahr. without boiling. The adhesion of water thus prepared to the surface of a glass tube was shown experimentally; the force being sufficient to sustain a column of water of considerable height. The contractile force of a soap-bubble was referred to; and the Lecturer passed on to the exhibition of the phenomena resulting from the shock of two opposing liquid veins. In this case, though the forces are in opposite directions, motion is not annihilated; but the liquid, as first shown by Savart, spreads out so as to form a thin transparent film, the plane of which is at right angles to the direction of the jets. By varying the pressure on one side or the other, or by making the jets of different diameters, the plane film could be converted into a curved one, and sometimes actually caused to close, so as to form a pelliculæ sack. A cistern, situated at the top of the house and communicating by pipes with the lecture table, placed a considerable pressure at the disposal of the Lecturer, and enabled him to exhibit in a striking manner the various phenomena described by Savart in his researches on the motion of liquids. A vein was caused to fall vertically upon a brass disk upwards of three inches in diameter: the liquid spread laterally on all sides, and formed an umbrella-shaped pellicle of great size and beauty. With a disk of an inch in diameter, a pellicle of at least equal magnitude was formed. When a candle was placed underneath the curved sheet of water a singular effect was produced. The film above the candle was instantly dissipated; and on moving the candle, its motion was followed by a corresponding change of the aqueous surface. On turning a suitable cock so as to lessen the pressure, the curvature of the film became increased, until finally the molecular action of the water caused it to form a curve returning upon itself, and exhibiting the appearance of a large flask. When the film completely embraced the vertical stem which supported the brass disk, a change in the form of the liquid flask was observed; the latter became elongated, and was sometimes divided into two portions, one of which glided down the vertical stem and was broken at its base. When the jet was projected vertically upwards, large sheets were also obtained. The jet was also suffered to fall into small hollow cones of various apertures, and the shape of the liquid sheet described thereby some beautiful modifications. The inclosed sides of the hollow cone gave the

liquid an ascending motion, which, combined with the action of gravity, caused the film to bend and constitute a vase-shaped surface of great beauty. The Lecturer next referred to the constitution of a liquid vein. He had pointed out, some years ago, a simple mode of observing this constitution by means of the electric spark; this method corroborated the result before arrived at by Savart, that the lower portion of a liquid vein owes its turbidity to the fact of the mass being there reduced to drops, although the quickness with which they succeed each other gives to the eye the impression of continuity. Savart's last experiments on this subject were repeated: a tube about five feet long and two inches wide had a perforated brass disk fixed at its lower extremity; the tube was filled with water, which, after it had become motionless, was permitted to issue from an orifice pierced in the centre of the disk. As the liquid escaped it gave birth to a succession of musical notes of sufficient intensity to be distinctly heard throughout the theatre. That these notes were not due to the motion imparted to the air by the descending drops of the liquid vein was proved, first, by intercepting the vein in its continuous portion, and, secondly, by permitting it to discharge itself into a vessel containing water, the orifice being caused to dip beneath the surface of the latter. In this case the mass of liquid was continuous, but the notes were nevertheless produced; thus showing that the vibrations which produce them must take place in the glass cylinder itself, and corroborating the conclusions arrived at by Savart from his earliest experiments on this subject. The pitch of the note depends upon the height of the liquid column which produces it; and by attaching a tube of an inch in diameter, furnished with a perforated bottom, to a cylindrical vessel about eighteen inches wide, and filling the whole with water, a note of long duration and of sensibly constant pitch was obtained. The Lecturer concluded with an experimental illustration of the total reflection of light at the common surface of two media of different refractive indices. The tube communicating with the reservoir before referred to was fitted into the top of a small box, into one of the sides of which was fitted a glass tube three quarters of an inch wide and five inches long. The side of the box opposite to that through which the glass tube was introduced was of glass. Behind the box was placed a camera, by means of which the electric light could be condensed and caused to pass, first through the glass back of the box, and then through the tube in front, so as to form a white disk upon a screen held in the direct path of the light. When, however, the cock was turned so as to permit water to spout from the tube, the light on reaching the limiting surface of air and water was totally reflected, and seemed to be washed downward by the descending liquid, the latter being thereby caused to present a beautiful illuminated appearance.

VARIETIES.

The Beaufoy Shakspearian Medal.—The late Mr. Henry B. H. Beaufoy, among his other magnificent presentations to the educational institutions in the City of London, invested in 1851 one thousand guineas, the interest to be given annually to the most successful competitor among the boys of Carpenter's or the City of London School, in the production of an essay on Shakspeare, and the immortal productions of England's dramatic bard; a silver medal was also to be presented to him as an additional honour. The dies were prepared by Mr. Benjamin Wyon; they are said to have cost 300*l.*, most liberally defrayed by the Messrs. Beaufoy. On the obverse, the head of Shakspeare side-faced to the left, from the bust on his monument at Stratford-upon-Avon; the inscription, "WILLIAM SHAKSPEARE, born April 23, 1564, died April 23, 1616." The reverse has the figure of Tragedy in the centre, standing erect, with a dagger in each hand; on her left, *Falstaff* seated in his chair, with a dagger in hand, relating his acts of bragging valour to *Prince Hal*; on her right, placed close

to Tragedy, is the seated figure of *Cardinal Wolsey*, enrobed, but meditating on his fallen greatness, happily expressed by his holding lowly, in the left hand, his doffed hat; standing, the back of *Prospero* is shown, with raised wand, bidding *Ariel* despatch like nymph of the sea: the figure floats in air, and occupies, in a most artistic manner, the upper portion of the field. In the exercise, "City of London School, Shakspearian Prize, founded 1851, by Henry B. H. Beaufoy, F.R.S., born April 23, 1785." The committee of the school having determined, in 1850, that the munificent liberality shown to the school by Mr. Beaufoy should be annually commemorated by his birthday being kept as a holiday, he was pleased, in consideration of that day (23rd April) happening to be also the anniversary of the birth and death of Shakspeare, to offer the above benefaction for the purpose of establishing a fund for prizes to be distributed annually, with a view of promoting the following objects, viz.—to commemorate the birth and genius of Shakspeare, and to encourage amongst the pupils a taste for reading and studying the writings of so eminent a man, justly styled "our great national bard," whose works occupy so prominent a position in English literature, and give a clearer insight into the manners and customs of the Elizabethan age than any other author; and to make them available to the pupils in the study of English history; and also as studies in comparison with the dramatic works of ancient Greek writers, as well as the dramatic writers of France and Germany and other countries. The above mentioned sum has been invested in the purchase of 1851. 1s. 7d. stock in the Three per Cent. Consols, the annual produce of which is applicable to the above objects, according to certain regulations prescribed by the deed of endowment.—*Illustr. Lond. News.*

The Ladies' College.

I promised, dear Fanny, to warn you,
If ever my love took a turn;
Well, that moment is come, and I scorn you—
The cause of my fickleness learn.
Have you heard of the feminine college?
No flatter ladies for me!
Just fancy the glory, the knowledge,
Of a woman who takes her degree.
Greek, Latin, French, Hebrew, and German,
She's a damsel of exquisite parts,
She will pen you an ode or a sermon,
In short, she's a *Spinster of Arts!*
S. A. on a card they now figure.
What an air, what a fashion has she!
Only think of the talent, the vigour,
Of a woman who takes her degree!
Theology, history, science,
From all fountains of learning she'll quaff,
She will wear a proud look of defiance,
And walk like a moral giraffe.
Now, a boarding-school miss who would try for?
What is simple Miss S. or Miss B?
No, this is the woman to sigh for,
When once she has got her degree.

There's a chance then for you yet, sweet Fanny,
Matriculate, don't lose a day;
I should like your love better than any,
The moment you are an S. A.
Of your commonplace nymphs I am weary,
A duchess were nothing to me,
I'll turn up my nose at a Peri,
Unless she has got a degree!

BACHELOR OF ARTS.

The New York Crystal Palace.—The Crystal Palace directors have authorized their president to sell the entire palace, gas fixtures, iron fence inclosing the palace, and all the property of the association, deliverable on or after the 1st of November next, for one half its actual cost, which is understood to have been about 700,000 dollars. Competent engineers and architects have decided that the palace could be taken down, removed to the Battery, and put up again for 50,000 dollars or less. Philadelphia and Boston are both agitating the plan of removing the palace to their respective cities.

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The Society is established on the tried and approved principle of Mutual Assurance. The funds are accumulated for the exclusive benefit of the Policy-holders, under their own immediate superintendence and control. The Profits are divided annually and applied in reduction of the current Premiums. Policy-holders participate in Profits after payment of five annual Premiums.

The Annual General Meeting of this Society was held on the 30th May, 1854, when a Report of the business for the last year was presented, exhibiting a statement of most satisfactory progress. It appeared that the Assurances in 1853 considerably exceeded those effected in any previous year; the number of Policies issued being more than 400, and the annual income thereon being upwards of £750,000. It also appeared, except in 1853, when the visitation of the cholera took place, the claims arising from deaths were, in every year, much below their estimated amount.

The Members present at the Meeting were fully satisfied with the Report, and resolved unanimously that a Reduction of 3½ per Cent. should be made in the current year's Premium, payable by all Policy-holders now entitled to participate in the Profits.

Credit is allowed for half the Annual Premiums for the first five years.

The following Table exemplifies the effect of the present reduction:—

Age when Assured.	Amount Assured.	Annual Prem. originally paid.	Allowance of 3½ per Cent.	Annual Prem now payable.
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£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
20	1000	20 17 6	6 11 6
30	1000	25 13 4	8 1 8
40	1000	33 18 4	10 13 8
50	1000	48 16 8	15 7 8
60	1000	75 17 6	23 18 0

14, Waterloo Place, London. A. R. IRVINE, Managing Director.

IMPERIAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY, 1, Old Broad Street, London.

Insituted 1820.

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WILLIAM R. ROBINSON, Esq., Deputy-Chairman.

The SCALE OF PREMIUMS adopted by this Office will be found of a very moderate character, but at the same time quite adequate to the Risk incurred.

FOUR FIFTHS, or 80 per cent. of the Profits, are assigned to Policies every fifth year, and may be applied to increase the sum insured, to an immediate payment in cash, or to the reduction and ultimate extinction of future Premiums.

ONE-THIRD of the Premium on Insurances of £500 and upwards, for the whole term of life, may remain as a debt upon the Policy, to be paid off at convenience, or the Directors will lend sums of £50 and upwards, on the security of Policies effected with this Company for the whole term of life, when they have acquired an adequate value.

SECURITY.—Those who effect Insurances with this Company are protected by its Subscribed Capital of £750,000, of which nearly £140,000 is invested, from the risk incurred by members of Mutual Societies.

The satisfactory financial condition of the Company, exclusive of the Subscribed and Invested Capital, will be seen by the following Statement:—

On the 31st October, 1853, the sums Assured, including Bonus added, amounted to . . . £2,500,000
The Premium Fund to more than . . . 800,000
And the Annual Income from the same source, to . . . 100,000

Insurances, without participation in Profits, may be effected at reduced rates.

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UNITED KINGDOM LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY, 8, Waterloo Place, Pall Mall, London.

THE FOURTEENTH ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING of the Company—being in the twenty-first year of its existence—was held at the Head Office, No. 8, Waterloo-Place, Pall-mall, London, on Friday, July 14, 1854.

CHARLES GRAHAM, Esq., F.S.A., in the Chair.

Statements of accounts from the formation of the Company down to the 31st December last, were laid before the meeting, from which the following is abstracted:—

That during the year ending 31st December, 1853, 418 new policies have been issued, assuring £351,185, and yielding, in annual premiums, a sum of £13,035 4s. 3d.

That the yearly income exceeds £123,000.

That the property of the Company, as at 31st December last, amounts to £485,598 10s. 11d.

That the sum assured by each policy from the commencement averages £724 18s.

That 89 policies on 67 lives have become claims in 1853, on which £61,373 6s. 4d. has been paid; and

That since the Company commenced business in 1834, 8,793 policies have been issued in all, of which 3,750 have lapsed, surrendered, or become claims.

By order of the Board, PATRICK MACINTYRE, Sec.

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